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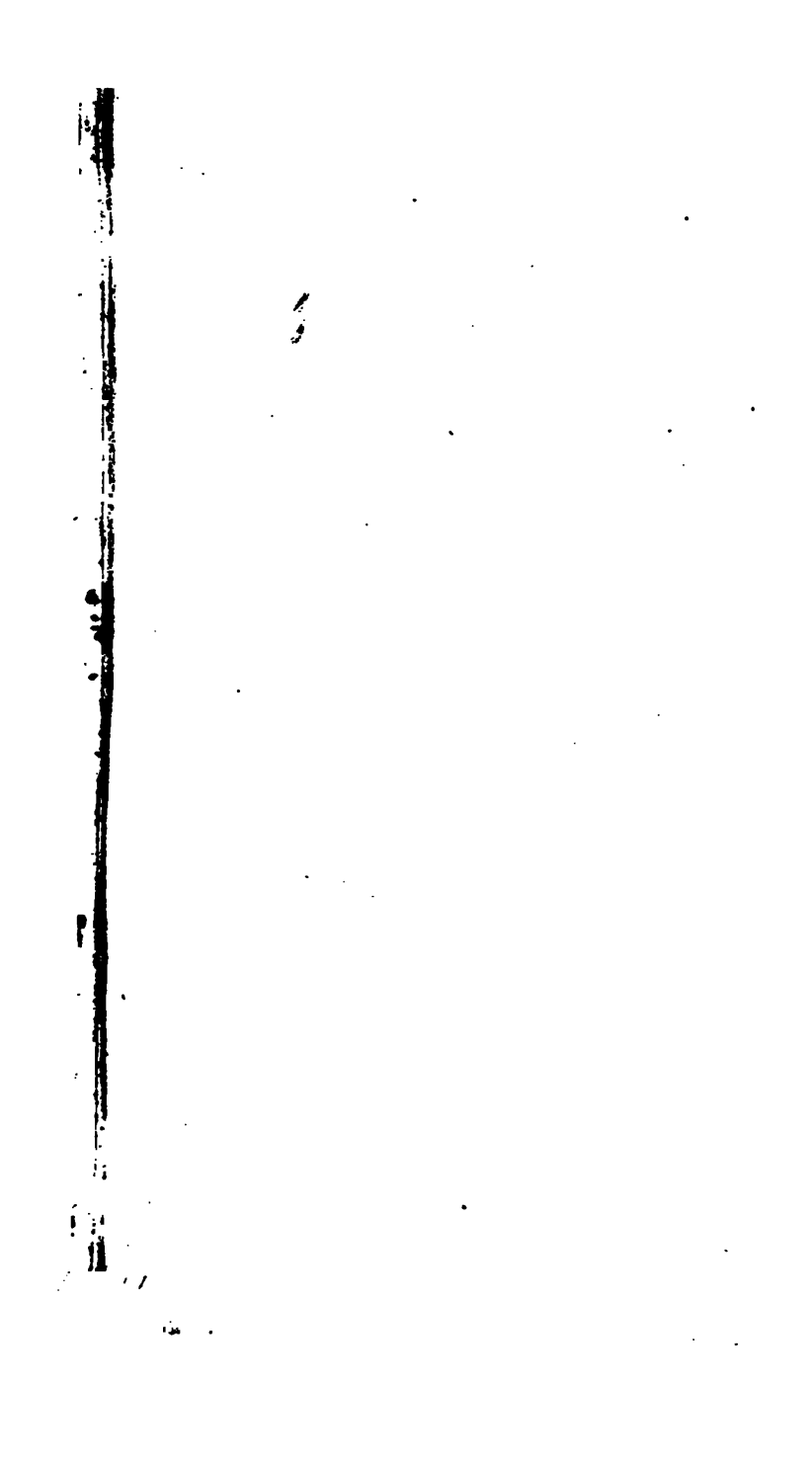




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A
GRAMMAR
OF
MODERN GEOGRAPHY,

WITH AN INTRODUCTION TO ASTRONOMY
AND THE USE OF THE GLOBES,

COMPILED FOR THE USE OF
KING'S COLLEGE SCHOOL,

By AARON ARROWSMITH,
HYDROGRAPHER TO THE KING,
AND MEMBER OF THE ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.



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P R E F A C E.

THE following Grammar of Modern Geography has been drawn up with a view of condensing as much information as possible in its small compass, without rendering the whole of it necessary to be studied in order to obtain a connected account of the present states, people, and great cities, of the world. Two kinds of type have been, therefore, employed. The larger of these alone is designed to be learned by the younger Students, and when they have thus gone once through the book, such portions of the remainder may be consulted as are found convenient: or, it might not be without advantage, even in the Learner's first progress through the Geography, to use the smaller type by way of a reading lesson. The whole has been likewise divided into Sections; so that, independent of typographical arrangement, any particular paragraph relating to more interesting matters may be learned at pleasure.

The questions which are invented in the "Praxis" attached to this volume, in addition to their being synthetically arranged, are also numbered; hence, likewise, any series of them may be readily given to the Student either for oral or written answers.

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CHAPTER I.

SYSTEM OF THE UNIVERSE.

1. WE find it recorded in the Sacred History of the Creation, That God made Lights in the firmament of the heaven to give light upon the earth; to divide the day from the night, and to be for signs, and for seasons, and for days and years:—He made the greater light to rule the day, and the lesser light to rule the night; He made the stars also.

2. These Celestial Lights are rendered subservient to the purposes for which they were created, by certain established laws of Motion, according to which they either really move, or seem to us to move. As the Divine Wisdom has not thought proper to reveal to us what these laws of Motion are, there have been certain conjectures made concerning them. These conjectures are called *Systems*, from a Greek word denoting the harmoniously arranging of certain bodies with respect to one another; they are also named Hypotheses (or *suppositions*), because it can not be asserted concerning even the most probable of them, that the heavenly bodies do so move. But it is reasonable to suppose that they do move according to one of these Systems rather than in any other way, because upon such a supposition their phenomena (*i. e.* their *appearances*) may be fairly solved and explained. It is the business of a particular Science to explain these systems and phenomena, and hence it is called Astronomy, from two Greek words denoting the knowledge of the *laws of the stars*.

3. There are four remarkable Systems connected with the Sun and Planets; viz. the Pythagorean or Copernican, the Ptolemaic, the Tychonic, and the Newtonian. The last of these is now generally received by the learned from its having been established by Sir Isaac Newton on an immovable foundation: it is also called the Solar or Planetary System. It derives the former of these names from the *Sun*, which is made its centre; and the latter from the word *Planet* by which all those bodies moving round the Sun are designated. The name *Planet* signifies *wanderer*; and inasmuch as these celestial lights never preserve for any length of time the same relative situation, they may be said to be always straying or *wandering* from each other.

4. All the heavenly bodies are *spheres* (or nearly so), but in consequence of their enlightened parts alone being seen by us, they appear by reason of their great distance as plane surfaces; and hence these apparent surfaces are sometimes called *discs* (from the Latin word *discus*) as resembling a flat round *dish*. A straight line passing through the centre of a circle and cutting the circumference in two parts, is called its *diameter*, because it *measures through* it (as the Greek word *διαμετρεῖ* signifies): now if a circle be supposed to turn completely round on this diameter, it will form a solid figure called a *Sphere*. A *Hemisphere* is a half-sphere cut through the centre by a right line in any direction; thus we say the Northern and Southern Hemispheres, the Eastern and Western Hemispheres, the Upper and Lower Hemispheres, and so on.

5. There is no doubt about the Chaldæans and Egyptians having been the first people in the world who were acquainted with astronomy; the Greeks borrowed it from the latter people. Thales is the first Greek who is mentioned as having laid the foundations of astronomy amongst his countrymen [B. C. 600]; he was so well acquainted with the motions of the heavenly bodies that he not only explained the eclipses but actually predicted one; he taught that the earth was round, which most of his countrymen (both before and after his time) looked upon as only a plane; he likewise showed the causes of solstices and equinoxes, and divided the year into 365 days. Pythagoras was one of his disciples, and is conjectured to have been well acquainted with the *annual and diurnal revolutions of the earth round the sun*; his pupil Philolaus was the first who openly taught this true system of the universe, but it was lost during the reign of the Peripatetic philosophy, and was first retrieved by Copernicus. (See Plate I. fig. 2.)

6. The *Ptolemaic System* was so named from the famous geographer and

mathematician Claudius Ptolemæus, who flourished at Pelusium in Egypt during the reigns of the Roman emperors Hadrian and Antoninus Pius. He taught that the earth was at rest in the centre of the universe, and that the heavens revolved round it from East to West in twenty-four hours, carrying all the heavenly bodies, stars, and planets along with them: but as there were many difficulties in his system, he endeavoured to account for some of the motions of the heavenly bodies by the introduction of cycles and epicycles, which though they were exceedingly ingenious, were almost unintelligible. These doctrines were subsequently universally believed and maintained by the learned of all nations till they were refuted by Copernicus and Newton. (See Plate I. fig. 3.)

7. Nicholas Copernicus (born A. D. 1473 at Thorn a town of Prussia) the author of the Copernican System, unable to reconcile the confused and perplexing hypothesis of Ptolemy with his own observations, or with those notices concerning the heavenly bodies which he found scattered over the works of the earlier philosophers, set about to reform its absurdity. But so firmly had the 1400 years which had elapsed from the time of Ptolemy to his own days rooted the error, that to confute it was incurring the imputation of heresy; and for this, about a century afterwards, Galileo suffered the severest punishments. Copernicus taught that the sun occupied the centre of the universe, and that the planets moved round him in elliptical orbits proportioned to their size: this system established by the new arguments and discoveries of Galileo, Kepler, and Newton, has finally prevailed over the prejudices against the earth's motion. (See Plate I. fig. 2.)

8. The Tychonic System was so called from Tycho Brahe a noble Dane (born A. D. 1546), who partly revived the old system of Ptolemy concerning the earth remaining at rest whilst the other heavenly bodies moved round it. But his system differed from Ptolemy's in its allowing the monthly motion of the Moon round the Earth; it also made the Sun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, which revolved round him in their respective years as he revolved round the Earth in a solar year: he thus supposed these five planets together with the Sun to be carried round the Earth in twenty-four hours. His system was afterwards altered by some other astronomers, who allowed the diurnal motion of the Earth on its own axis but denied its annual motion round the Sun: this hypothesis, partly true and partly false, is called the Semi-Tychonic System. (See Plate I. fig. 4.)

9. THE SOLAR SYSTEM is that which was taught by Pythagoras and Philolaus, revived by Copernicus, and at length immovably established by our great countryman Sir Isaac Newton (A. D. 1687) after the most simple and uniform manner. The great principle on which the whole of this system rests, is Gravity, or that power by which all the planets are drawn to the Centre of their respective orbits: hence its name, the Centripetal force (from *centrum* and *peto*). The Centrifugal force, on the other hand (derived from *centrum* and *fugio*), is that by which all bodies, when set in motion, will move uniformly in a straight line, except they are hindered; and thus they constantly tend to fly from the centre. This centre is the

Sun, and round it revolve in regular periods those opaque bodies which derive their light from him, and are called PLANETS. The ancients appear to have been acquainted only with six of the planets, but modern astronomers have discovered five more. The nearest of these to the Sun is Mercury; then follow successively Venus, the Earth, Mars, Ceres, Pallas, Juno, Vesta, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgian the outmost of them all. (See Plate I. fig 1.)

10. The path described by a planet in moving round the Sun, is called its Orbit: these orbits are not circular but elliptical, neither are they parallel, for some of them cut and cross each other in various directions. Besides this motion round the sun, each planet has a daily motion round its own axis, which causes it to have its spherical shape a little flattened at the poles. This alteration in the figure of the planets is owing to the parts, which are receding from the axis, having a tendency to rise towards the equator, especially if the matter of which they consist be fluid: and therefore, unless our earth were higher at the equator than towards the poles, the sea would rise under the equator and overflow all near it. The distance of the planets from the Sun, as well as other phenomena connected with them, will be best seen from the following table.

11. TABULAR VIEW OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

Names of the Planets, &c.	Diameters in English Miles.	Distances from the Sun in English Miles.	Apparent diameters (inseconds) as seen from the Earth.	Tropical Revolutions round the Sun.	Revolutions round their own Axis.	
			"	Days.	D. H. M.	
The Sun -	883,246	- - -	1,921	- -	25 14 8	Inferior Planets, or such as are nearer the Sun than our Earth is.
Mercury -	3,224	37,000,000	10	88	15 0 5	
Venus -	7,687	68,000,000	58	224 $\frac{3}{4}$	0 23 21	
The Earth	7,912	95,000,000	- -	365 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 0 0	
The Moon	2,180	The Earth's Satellite -	1,868	The Earth's Satellite	29 17 44	Superior Planets, or such as are farther from the Sun than our Earth is.
Mars -	4,189	144,000,000	27	687	1 0 39	
Vesta -	238	225,000,000	$\frac{1}{2}$	1,335	unknown.	
Ceres -	163	260,000,000	1	1,681	unknown.	
Pallas -	80	266,000,000	$\frac{1}{2}$	1,680	unknown.	
Juno -	1,425	275,000,000	3	2,008	1 3 0	
Jupiter -	89,170	490,000,000	39	4,330 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 9 56	
Saturn -	79,042	900,000,000	18	10,746 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 10 16	
Georgian	35,112	1,800,000,000	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	30,637 $\frac{1}{2}$	unknown.	

12. All these planets are called *primary*, from their

revolving round the sun as their proper centre: the *secondary* planets are such as move round some primary planet in the same way that the latter does round the Sun, although they likewise derive all their light from the Sun. Thus the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgian, are each attended with secondary planets; the Georgian with six, Saturn with seven, Jupiter with four, and the Earth with one: the last mentioned secondary planet is the Moon, and hence the whole of them are sometimes called *Moons*, as also *Satellites* from their attending the primary bodies as a prince is attended by his (Satellites or) Life-guards.

13. So! or the Sun, the great luminary of our System, whose presence constitutes day, was in the infancy of astronomy reckoned amongst the planets, but he should rather be numbered amongst the fixed stars. A spectator placed as near to a star as we are to the Sun, would see that star as large and bright a body as we see the Sun: whilst another spectator as far distant from the Sun as we are from the stars, would see him as small as we see a star, divested too of the earth and all the other planets, which are circulating round him. The revolution of the Sun on his own axis from East to West is evinced by the motion of the spots which are observed on his surface.

14. Mercury is a little bright planet, and such a close companion of the sun that it is usually lost in his splendour; it is subject to the same phases (i. e. appearances) as the moon. Venus, the brightest and most beautiful of all the planets, is also called Lucifer, Phosphorus, and the Morning-star, when she goes before the Sun, and Hesperus or the Evening-star, when she follows him; she is not only remarkable for her bright and white light, but for her phases varying just like those of the Moon, her illumined part being constantly turned towards the Sun, viz. towards the East when she is a Morning-star, and towards the West when she is an Evening-star. Mars has obtained its name from its fiery appearance, which is supposed to be derived from the atmosphere with which it is surrounded. The next four planets, viz. Vesta, Ceres, Pallas, and Juno, are so exceedingly diminutive as to be seen with some difficulty; from the remarkable phenomena connected with them, the learned have conjectured that they are the remains of one celestial body, which revolved round the sun between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter, but at last burst in pieces from some sudden convulsion. Jupiter is a bright refulgent star, and is remarkable not only for the belts or zones with which he is marked, but for his four little satellites which constantly move round him as the Moon does round our earth. Saturn, on account of his great distance, appears to the eye with a feeble light; he has seven satellites which are constantly circulating round him, but he is more remarkable from being encompassed with a Ring, which is opacous, like the planet itself. The Georgian is at so great a distance from us that but little is known concerning its phenomena: it has six satellites which revolve round it in regular order, being subject to the same laws as those of the preceding planets.—By attending to these observations the pupil may readily distinguish all the larger planets; for if after sun-set he sees one of them nearer the East than the West, it can neither be Mercury nor Venus, and

he may easily determine whether it is Mars, Jupiter, or Saturn, by the colour and brilliancy of its light; he may also distinguish Mercury from Venus by the same means.—Each of the planets is denoted in astronomical works by a certain character, which may be seen exemplified in Plate I. fig 1.

15. Besides these planets there are other Celestial Lights called *Comets*, or, vulgarly, *Blazing Stars*, which occasionally traverse our System though they do not seem to form a part of it; they appear suddenly, and, after having moved like planets in very eccentric orbits, they disappear, but return again after long periods of time. They are distinguished from the other luminaries by their being generally attended with a long train of light, which is always opposite to the sun, and becomes of a fainter lustre the farther it is from the body: they are compact, fixed, and durable bodies, and their trains are composed of a very thin, slender vapour emitted by the head or nucleus of the comet ignited by the sun. When a comet moves from the sun or to the Eastward of it, it is said to be *bearded*, because the light precedes it in the manner of a beard; when it is to the Westward of the sun and sets after it, it is said to be *tailed*, because the light follows it in the form of a train or tail: but when it and the sun are diametrically opposite (the earth between them), the train is hid behind the body of the comet, excepting a small portion, which appears round it like a border of *hair*, and then it is called *hairy*, and from this last appearance the name of comet is derived. Very little is known even in modern times concerning the nature and phenomena of comets.

16. **THE FIXED STARS.** But the whole of our Solar System occupies a very small portion in the infinite regions of Space. It is surrounded on all sides by an innumerable host of stars appearing to us certainly as placed in a concave sphere, but situated at such a remote distance from our system as to exceed the bounds of all calculation. As an instance of this it may be mentioned that the star called *Sirius*, one of the largest in the heavens, is reckoned by astronomers to be at least 27,000 times farther from us than the sun is.

17. These stars are called the *Fixed Stars* from their constantly retaining the same position and distance with respect to each other, and in contradistinction to the *wandering* stars or planets; these last shine with a steady light, and hence the fixed stars, which, owing to their immense distance, have always a twinkling appearance, may be readily distinguished from them. Each of the Fixed Stars is supposed to be a separate sun of itself, for they are all too far removed from the sun which illuminates our earth to derive any light from him; and moreover each is conjectured to be the centre of a system like our own, and to have planets circulating round it in the same harmonious and beautiful revolution.

18. *The magnitudes of the fixed stars appear to us to be very different;*

which probably arises not only from a diversity in their real size, but from their various distances. On this account they have been divided into several classes hence called *magnitudes*: thus, those which appear the largest, are called stars of the first magnitude, and are probably nearest to us; next to these are those of the second magnitude, and so on to the sixth which is the last magnitude that can be seen with the naked eye. All beyond these are called telescopic stars, from their requiring a telescope to see them; they are divided into many classes, and, notwithstanding their apparently diminutive size, they do not lose one particle of their importance in the opinion of astronomers, who by their means have made some great discoveries.

19. There are some of the fixed stars, which though they appear single to the naked eye, yet, when they are examined with a good telescope, are found to consist of two or more stars exceedingly near to each other; these are called *Double Stars*, &c. There are likewise others scarcely visible to the naked eye, which from their exhibiting a dim and cloudy light, are called *Nebule*; when seen through a telescope they appear like dusky specks or clouds. They are supposed to be clusters of stars closely connected in the most beautiful arrangement, and at such an inconceivable distance from our System, that each of them is conjectured to be composed of several thousand distinct luminous bodies. Thus they are similar in their nature to that broad line of light which goes quite round the heavens, and which, from its appearing to be of a milky whiteness, is called the *Milky Way*, or sometimes the *Galaxy*, from a Greek expression (*γαλαξίας κύκλος*) having the same signification. There is no doubt but that its whitish appearance arises from the mixed lustre of the numberless stars which compose it, and which, owing to their immense distance from us, appear merely as a luminous cloud. Sir Wm. Herschel has furnished us with a new and gigantic idea concerning the milky way; he supposes the sidereal universe to be divided into clusters or strata of stars, and the milky way to be that particular cluster or stratum in which our sun is placed. Hence we see all the stars towards the extremities of this stratum in the form of a great nebulous circle, which appears lucid on account of the immense accumulations of the stars; whilst the rest of the heavens at the sides seems only to be scattered over with constellations more or less crowded, according to the number of stars contained in the *sides of the stratum*.

20. The ancients portioned out the firmament into several parts or *constellations* under the representation of certain images, by way of assisting the memory in distinguishing their disposition and direction. These divisions which appear to have been coeval with the knowledge of astronomy, were probably made by the Egyptians, who used them as signs of the different seasons, and as a directory for commencing the operations of ploughing, sowing and the other labours of husbandry. There are a great many of them, but twelve are rendered more important than the others, by reason of the Orbit, in which the Earth performs its annual period (and which the Sun seems to move round every year), running under the very middle of them : these Constellations, being fancied to represent certain things, are called *Signs*, and because the things so represented are most of them *Zodia* (*ζῳδία*) *i. e.* animals, hence the whole tract is styled the *Zodiack*, and the figures themselves are called the Signs of the Zodiack. The names of these Signs are

Aries, Taurus, Gemini, Cancer, Leo, Virgo, Libra, Scorpio, Sagittarius, Capricornus, Aquarius, and Pisces ; which have been thus playfully rendered in English :

The Ram, the Bull, the heavenly Twins,

And next the Crab the Lion shines,

The Virgin and the Scales ;

The Scorpion, Archer, and He-goat,

The Man that holds the watering-pot,

And Fish with glittering tails.

They are denoted by certain characters which may be seen in Plate I. fig. 1. The middle part of the Zodiack is also called the *Ecliptic* because all eclipses (*ἐκλείψεις*) can only happen when the planets are either in or near this line.—The Greeks, who borrowed their knowledge of astronomy from the Egyptians, retained several of their figures, but accommodated almost all of them to the fabulous history of the gods and heroes, whom they thus placed amongst the stars. But the division of the firmament by the ancients only took in so much of the visible heavens as came under their notice : and hence, as well as from our more extended knowledge of those with

which they were acquainted, the number of constellations has been very materially increased.

21. The Egyptians borrowed the names of the constellations from various animals, in which they imagined they found certain qualities connected with the appearances of the sun, moon, and some of the stars. Thus, by the sign *Aries* or the *Ram*, a prolific animal, they represented the fertilizing warmth of the sun in the Spring; and by that of *Leo* or the *Lion*, a hot and furious beast, they denoted the scorching heat of the sun in Summer: they regarded *Taurus* or the *Bull* as a fitting emblem of the sun's power in forwarding the operations of agriculture, to which this animal was subservient; and *Libra* or the *Balance* was a proper type for that part of the heavens in which the sun appears at one of the equinoxes, when he distributes equal day and night to the whole earth.

22. It was hence, from their having been *Signs* pointing out the times and seasons of the year, that they came to be considered as the causes of heat and cold, dryness and moisture, and as having dominion not only over the inanimate creation, but over the complexions, constitutions, and dispositions, of Man. From this it was but one step to that opinion, which conceived the Sun, Moon, Planets, and Stars, to be of a divine nature, governed and inhabited by inferior deities of a middle nature between man and the Supreme Being; and the worship which was hence paid to them, appears to have been the origin of all the idolatry which has been practised in the world. This worship is called in the Scriptures the worship of the *host of heaven*, or in Hebrew *Seba Schamaim*, from which the moderns have fashioned the names of Sabaism for the worship, and Sabæans for the worshippers themselves. These early idolaters first worshipped the planets as being the nearest of the heavenly bodies to them, and therefore imagined to have the greatest influence on the world; they erected temples to them, and in the absence of the planets worshipped the deities who were thought to govern them, by images, in which, after their consecration, the several influences were thought as much to preside as in the planets themselves. To these images they gave the names of the planets which they represented, and which were ranked the first in the polytheism of the ancients from their being the first of their gods. This religion began among the Chaldeans who communicated it to all the Eastern nations and to the Egyptians; from the latter people it passed to the Greeks who propagated it amongst all the Western nations of the known world. The remainder of this sect still exists in the East under the same name, but their religion is a mixture of Christianity, Judaism, Mahometanism, and Paganism.

23. THE EARTH. We must now return to our own Solar System in order to take a view of the Earth, or that planet which we inhabit. The figure of the Earth is very nearly that of a sphere or globe, which is occasioned by every thing on it being attracted to its centre by the laws of gravitation. A straight line passing through its centre from North to South is called its *Axis*, in allusion to the (*ἄξων* axis or) axletree of a chariot, because on it the Earth turns round once in twenty-four hours: the extremities of this axis are named the *Poles* (from *πολεῖν* to turn), and because one of them is always

pointing Northward and the other Southward, hence the former is called the North Pole, and the latter the South Pole. The North Pole is likewise called the Arctic, because it points to the constellations of the Great and Little Bears, the Greek word *Arctos* (*ἄρκτος*) signifying a *bear*; hence too the Southern Pole is styled the Antarctic, as being *opposite* (*ἀντι*) the Arctic. Now it is this *daily* revolution of the Earth on its axis, which brings us day and night, and which causes us to imagine that the sun, planets, and stars move round it: moreover, this revolution of the Earth being from West to East, hence the heavenly bodies seem to move in an opposite direction, and therefore we say they rise in the East and set in the West.

24. The roundness of the Earth's figure might have been always observed from the round shadow, which the Earth casts upon the Moon when it eclipses her, and from the observation of the stars, particularly of the Polar Star, which rises as we go North, and sinks as we go South. But it was first proved by the Portuguese navigator Magellan, who completely sailed round the Earth at the beginning of the 16th century. The appearance of distant objects (especially at sea) as they are approached or lost sight of, also readily shows the rotundity of the Earth's figure, as may be seen in Plate II. fig 1, where the curved line *A B* represents a part of the surface of the Earth. Thus a person at *c* will be unable to see the ship at *e*, because (owing to the curvature of the earth) it is below the visible horizon of his eye; but, as it sails towards him, he will see its topmasts when it gets to the point *f*, and finally the whole vessel at the point *g*.

25. It is also by the same laws of gravitation that the *Antipodes* (from *ἀντι* against and *πόδες* feet) or such inhabitants of the earth as live diametrically opposite to each other, always stand equally upright and firm. For, if we traversed the whole globe, we should every where have the sky over our heads, and our feet towards the centre of the Earth; and our Antipodes may as well imagine that we stand with our heads hanging downwards, as we conceive that this is their pendulous position. Nay farther, we who are now on what we call the uppermost side of the earth, are carried by its revolution in the space of twelve hours to the situation where our antipodes now are, although we shall be as far from them as before. All this is owing to the amazing power of gravitation, the centre of which, so far as regards the inhabitants of the Earth, is the centre of the Earth, and therefore they all gravitate towards this centre: and we must consider the terms *up* and *down* merely in relation to bodies being farther from, or nearer to, the centre. This will be rendered more obvious on reference to Plate II. fig. 2. in which *A* represents the earth, *E* its centre, and *m* four little figures upon its surface, whose relative position with respect to the centre must always be the same on whatever part of the earth they may be found.

26. The Diurnal motion of the Earth is illustrated in Plate II. fig 2. where the circle *A* represents the Earth, the shaded part being that hemisphere which is turned from the sun, and, consequently, in darkness: *E* is

the centre of the Earth, through which (perpendicular to the paper) the Axis is drawn, whereon it makes its daily revolution; $f g h i$ denote the circumference of the heavens, and S the Sun. The Earth being supposed to be thus situated, and to move round its Axis towards the Sun, it is evident, that at the point A the Earth will first begin to be enlightened by the Sun, that is, the sun will there appear to be just rising or ascending the horizon. The Earth having moved round its own axis, so that the point A upon it has come under the point g of the heavens, the Sun will then appear at its greatest height above the horizon for that day, and so it will be noon or mid-day at the place A . The Sun now appears beginning to descend, and when, by the revolution of the Earth, its point A has arrived under the point h in the heavens, the Sun will appear to be just setting or sinking below the horizon. The point A then gets beyond the influence of the Sun and becomes totally darkened; when it comes under i in the heavens, it will be then midnight at it, and when under f , it will be sun-rise again.

27. The term Horizon is derived from a Greek word (ὁρίζων) signifying something that *bounds*, and hence we use it with respect to the line that bounds our view of the earth and heavens. When applied to our view of the earth we call it the *sensible* horizon, by way of distinguishing it from the *rational* or *real* horizon, which would bound our view, if we could see at once half the Globe. The point in the heavens directly over our heads is called the *Zenith*, and that diametrically opposite below, the *Nadir*. It is the rational horizon which is represented on globes by the wooden circle which surrounds them.

28. The Diurnal motion of the Earth on its own axis must not be confounded with its *Annual* revolution in its orbit round the Sun: the former only produces Day and Night, but the latter causes the different lengths of day and night, as well as the phenomena of the Seasons.

29. It is this latter which makes the Sun to appear as if it had such an annual motion round us, and it may be better understood by referring to Plate II. fig. 3. where the Sun is represented in the centre, the orbit of the Earth by the dotted circle next round it, and the Ecliptic with its twelve signs by the outermost circle. Now, supposing the Earth to be at A , the Sun will appear to us to be at *Libra*; and, supposing the Earth to move from A to B , and so to C , the Sun will thereby appear to us to move from *Libra* to *Scorpio* and thence to *Sagittarius*. In like manner by the Earth's motion along the rest of its orbit till it comes to A again, the Sun will seem to us to move along the rest of the Ecliptic till it once more comes to *Libra*. Hence it will be observed, that, whereas we commonly say the Sun is in *Libra*, when it is between us and *Libra* (and so on of the other signs), we should, properly speaking, say that the Earth is then in *Aries*, or the sign diametrically opposite to *Libra*; inasmuch as the Earth is always in that point of the Ecliptic diametrically opposite to the one in which the Sun appears to be.

30. It has been already said that the Diameter on which the Earth turns is called its Axis, the two extremities of which are named its Poles. Between these Poles every point in the Earth does by its Diurnal Rotation describe a circle; and, because all these circles must always *keep at the same distance* from the Equator or

Great Circle, and run, as it were, by the side of each other (*παρ' ἀλλήλους*), hence they are called *Parallels*. The greatest of all these circles is that which is in the very middle between the Poles; it is called the *Equator* or *Equinoctial*, because, when the Sun is in the plane of it [*noctes æquantur i. e.*] it is *equal night* and day all over the world. If this Equator ran along exactly under the Ecliptic of the heavens, there would *always* be equal day and night over the *whole* world. But the Equator crosses the Ecliptic, and hence it is only equal day and night twice in the year, when the Sun appears in one of those two points of the Ecliptic where the Equator crosses it; viz. in the first point of *Aries* and the first of *Libra*. These two points are therefore called the Equinoctial Points, and the times of the year answering to them are called the Vernal and Autumnal Equinoxes, because the one happens in the Spring and the other in the Autumn.

31. Amongst the other circles described by the Earth in its Diurnal Rotation are the two Tropics, and the two Polar Circles. The two *Tropics* are those circles on the Earth, over which the Sun seems directly to pass, when he is at the greatest distance from the Equator Northward and Southward (viz. $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees); wherefore one is called the Northern, and the other the Southern Tropic. And because, when the Sun appears to move vertically over the Northern Tropic, he appears to be in the beginning of Cancer, hence the said Tropic is commonly called the *Tropic of Cancer*; and for the like reason the Southern Tropic is commonly styled the *Tropic of Capricorn*. The name Tropic is derived from a Greek word (*τροπικός*) denoting something whence a *turn* is made: for the line of the Ecliptic quitting the Equator at the first point of *Aries*, continues to rise higher Northward from it till it reaches the first point of *Cancer*, when it *turns* to the Southward; and after again cutting the Equator at the first point of *Libra*, continues to descend Southward till it reaches the first point of *Capricorn*, when it again *turns* to the Northward and reaches *Aries*. And, because the Sun appears to make a *stand* in the first points of *Cancer* and *Capricorn*, going neither

Northward nor Southward, hence these two points of the Ecliptic are called the two Solstitial points; these two Times of the year are named the *Summer* and *Winter Solstices*, from the seasons in which they happen.

32. The two Polar Circles (North and South) are so called, because they are near to the two Poles of the Earth, from which they are the same distance as the Tropics are from the Equator (*viz.* $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees). These Polar Circles bound those portions of the Earth, where it is continuous day or night during several diurnal revolutions of our planet.

33. The Polar Circles answer to those circles in the heavens, which the Poles of the Ecliptic seem to describe by the apparent diurnal motion of the heavens, and this is the reason why they are just as far distant from their respective Poles of the Earth, as the Tropics are from the Equator; $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees being the measure of the angle, which the planes of the Equator and Ecliptic make by their mutual inclination.

34. But the phenomena of the Earth, when moving in its Orbit, will be best understood by consulting fig. 4 of Plate II. In this diagram the Sun is represented in the centre, round which is the elliptical orbit of the Earth divided into the twelve signs of the Ecliptic, before which the Sun appears to move. The Earth itself is represented by the four circles, during the times of the Equinoxes and Solstices; the shaded parts being in darkness. On each of these, the line A X represents the axis of the Earth, and the line E Q the Equator or Equinoctial Line; T R is the Tropic of Cancer, and T N the Tropic of Capricorn; N P the North Polar Circle, and S P the South Polar Circle.

35. It must first be premised, that the Sun will always be vertical to that point of the Earth, where a right line drawn from the centre of the Sun to the centre of the Earth cuts the surface of the latter. Thus, when the Earth is in the beginning of Capricorn, the Sun will be vertical to the Northern Tropic T R; because, a right line drawn from the Sun to the beginning of Capricorn will cross the surface of the Earth at T. So also, when the Earth is in Aries, the Sun will be vertical to the Equator or E Q; because, a right line drawn from the Sun to Aries will cross the surface of the Earth in a point of E Q. Hence, it is easy to apprehend how the various lengths of day and night, as well as the various seasons of the year, are produced by the annual motion of the Earth.

36. *Vernal Equinox.* Suppose, then, the Earth to be at Libra, the Sun will appear in Aries, and so in one of the Equinoctial points, and in the middle between the poles of the Earth A X; consequently, he will enlighten, from Pole to Pole, that hemisphere of the Earth which is opposite to him. Hence it follows, that every place on the Earth, being carried round the Axis of the earth in a uniform manner by the diurnal motion of the Earth, will be as long in the light as in darkness, *i. e.* the day and night will be then equal all over the Earth.

37. *Summer Solstice.* The Earth having moved by its Annual motion from Libra to Capricorn, the Sun will appear in Cancer, where is his greatest Declination (*i. e.* distance from the Equator) Northward: whence it is evident, that his rays, which always enlighten one half of the Earth at once will reach beyond the North Pole A to P, but will not reach nearer the South

Pole X than the point S. From this it follows, that the portion of the Earth within the North Polar Circle N P, will at this time of the year enjoy daylight during the whole *diurnal* revolution of the Earth; whilst, on the contrary, it will be continual night during the same period in that portion of the Earth lying within the South Polar Circle S P. It follows also, that the greater part of the Northern Hemisphere enjoys the light of the Sun, whilst the greater part of the Southern Hemisphere is in darkness; and this proportion of light is greater or less, according as any place may be nearer or farther from the North Pole, one half of the Equator being always enlightened, and the other not. Hence it is, that in this position of the Earth, the days are longest and the nights shortest in the Northern Hemisphere, and so it is Summer there; wherefore we, who live in the Northern Hemisphere, call this the Summer-solstice: whereas, in the Southern Hemisphere, the days are then shortest and the nights longest, and so it is Winter there. And the longest day is so much the longer as the place is nearer to the North Pole, for at the Equator itself day and night are equal to each other throughout the whole year.

38. *Autumnal Equinox.* The Earth having moved by its Annual motion from Capricorn to Aries, the Sun will appear to be in Libra, or one of those points where the Ecliptic and Equator cross each other, and so produce equal day and night all over the world; as was the case when the Earth was in the opposite direction (that is, when it was in Libra, and the Sun in Aries), and for the same reasons.

39. *Winter Solstice.* In like manner, the Earth having moved by its Annual motion from Aries to Cancer, the Sun will appear to be in Capricorn, where is its greatest Declination (i. e. distance from the Equator) Southward. And, consequently, at this time of the year, the same phenomena will happen to the inhabitants of the Southern Hemisphere, as happened to those of the Northern Hemisphere when the Earth was in Capricorn, that is to say, they will then have longer days than nights, and will be enjoying their Summer; whilst we in the Northern Hemisphere, shall have longer nights than days, and be suffering the inclemencies of Winter, wherefore we call this the Winter Solstice.

40. The different *distances* of the Sun from the Earth at different parts of the year, as also its appearing of a different *magnitude*, and seeming to move at a different rate, are all owing to the elliptical orbit of the Earth, and to the Earth not being in the centre of this ellipsis but in one of its foci (i. e. centres). For, as the Sun's diameter appears less about the middle of June, and greater about the middle of December, so, the Sun is more distant from us in our Summer than in our Winter, and also seems to move quicker in the latter than in the former; insomuch, that he takes up about eight days more in seeming to pass from the Vernal to the Autumnal Equinox, than from the Autumnal to the Vernal—although in both intervals of time, he seems to pass over exactly one half of the Ecliptic. This is explained in Plate II. fig. 5, where the circle represents the Ecliptic, the ellipsis represents the Orbit of the Earth, and S the Sun, in that focus of the ellipsis next the sign Cancer. Now, about the middle of June, the Sun appearing to us in the beginning of Cancer, the Earth is consequently in the beginning of Capricorn, and so at the point A of its elliptical orbit; that is, at its Aphelium or greatest distance from the Sun, for which reason, he then appears less to us. Again, about the middle of December, the Sun appearing to us in the beginning of Capricorn, the Earth is consequently in the beginning of Cancer, and so at the point P of its elliptical orbit; that is, at its Perihelium or least distance from the Sun, for which reason, he then appears greatest to us. The terms

Aphelium and *Perihelium* are derived from the Greek (*ἀπό* from *ἥλιος* the sun; and *περί* near *ἥλιος*) and signify distance from, or approximation to, the Sun. Farther, a line drawn from Aries to Libra, through the centre of the Sun divides the Ecliptic into two halves; but it unequally divides the orbit of the Earth, the greater segment of it answering to the six signs of the Ecliptic which the Earth passes under, between the Vernal and Autumnal equinoxes, and the less segment answering to the other six signs, which the Earth passes under, between the Autumnal and Vernal equinoxes. Whence it comes to pass, that the Earth, taking up more time (about eight days more) to go along the greater segment of its orbit than along the less, the Sun also seems to take up more time, and, consequently, to move more slowly under the six signs of the Ecliptic between the Vernal and Autumnal, than between the Autumnal and Vernal Equinoxes.

41. As it is evident from this, that the Sun is nearer to us in Winter than in Summer, it appears at first sight singular, that we should feel his heat so much more in Summer, than in Winter. But it must be recollected, that we feel the Sun's heat not only as he is nearer to, or farther from us, but as his rays fall *directly* or *indirectly* upon us; whence it happens, that though the Sun is farther from us in Summer, yet, because his rays are then much more nearly perpendicular to us than in Winter, therefore, they are hotter to us in the former, than in the latter season. This may be seen at once, by referring to Plate II. fig. 4. For, when in summer, the Earth is in the beginning of Capricorn, the rays of the Sun then fall perpendicularly upon the Northern Tropic T R, and are hottest to all the inhabitants of the Earth; North of this Tropic: but on the other hand, when in winter the Earth is in the beginning of Cancer, the perpendicular rays of the Sun fall upon the Southern Tropic T N, and are hottest to all the inhabitants South of this Tropic—whilst they only reach us in this part of the globe in a very oblique direction, as is evident, by supposing the right line X drawn from the Sun to the Northern Tropic.

42. THE MOON is a secondary planet, inasmuch as she moves round the Earth, though she derives all her light from the Sun. A single revolution of the Moon round the Earth from one Synod, or conjunction, with the Sun to another, is called the Moon's Synodical Month, and consists of 29 days, 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours: it is this month which is principally used in the computation of time, for its several parts are easily distinguished by the several *Phases* (or appearances) of the Moon belonging respectively to it. The several Phases of the Moon arise from her being an opacous body, receiving her light from the Sun, and from her spherical figure, in consequence of which, one half of her is always enlightened, namely, that Hemisphere which is towards the Sun. Now, this Hemisphere being seen by us, sometimes more, sometimes less (according to her position with respect to the Earth), causes the several Phases of the Moon.

43. This will be best understood by referring to Plate II. fig. 6, in which S represents the Sun, E the Earth, O R part of the Earth's orbit, and A B C D

the orbit of the Moon. On the several most remarkable points of this last, is represented the Moon with its enlightened and darkened hemispheres, which though they are always equal to each other, do not appear so to us, but rather like the several little circular draughts respectively adjoining them. Thus, the Moon being at A, all its enlightened hemisphere is towards the Earth, and therefore seen by us; for which reason, we say the Moon is *full*, because she appears to us with a *full orb*, or with all her surface enlightened: but when she moves to B, it is evident that only a part of her enlightened hemisphere will be towards the Earth, and so seen by us; wherefore, the Moon will appear somewhat defective of light on that side which is from the Sun, and is hence said to be *gibbous*, from (*gibbus*, *bunched out*) her light part being bunched out or convex. The Moon having moved to C, only half of her enlightened hemisphere will be towards the Earth, for which reason she will appear with a half-orb, or as we then say, as a *half-moon*; but, when she has come to D, a very little portion of her enlightened hemisphere will be towards the Earth, and therefore she will appear to us to be *horned*, the horns bending from the Sun, Westward. When the Moon is at F, none of her enlightened hemisphere will be towards the Earth, and therefore she is invisible to us, wherefore we then say the Moon *changes*, or it is *New Moon*, because she will appear *anew* in G; at G she is again *horned*, her light part being towards the Sun, whilst her horns bend from him, and so Eastward. After this the Moon will appear at H with a half-orb again (as at C), and at I gibbous again (as at B), and so, she will proceed to A, where it will be again full moon.

44. It must be observed, that, whether increasing or decreasing, the illuminated part of the Moon is always towards the Sun: and therefore whenever the horns and hollow part of the Moon appear Eastward or on the left hand as we look at her, then she is increasing; but whenever the horns and hollow part appear Westward or on the right hand as we look at her, then she is decreasing, or on the wane.

45. When the Moon is horned, that is a little before and after the New Moon, besides her bright horns she has a *faint light* which renders all the rest of her disc visible. This faint light is supposed to be caused by the reflection of the Sun's rays cast upon her from the Earth; for it will be evident by referring to the dotted line X Y in fig. 6, the Earth's position at such times is precisely that, in which such a reflection would be thrown upon the Moon: whereas the Moon has no sooner moved beyond the limits of such a reflection (which limits are shown near enough by the line O R), than the faint light ceases.

46. What has been observed concerning the Sun takes place also with the Moon, namely, that in one part of her orbit she appears to be smaller and to move slower, whilst in the other she appears to be larger and to move swifter: this is likewise caused by the Earth's being in one of the foci of the Moon's elliptical orbit. For, in fig. 5, suppose S to represent the Earth, and A P the Moon's orbit; then A will represent the Moon's *Apogee* ($\alpha\pi\omicron$ from, and $\gamma\eta$ the Earth) or greatest distance from the Earth, when she will appear less, and P her *Perigee* ($\pi\epsilon\pi\iota$ near, and $\gamma\eta$) or least distance from the Earth, when she will consequently appear greater: and, because she is longer in traversing the greater segment of her orbit than the less, therefore she will appear to move slower in the former and quicker in the latter.

47. ECLIPSES OF THE SUN AND MOON. The Earth and Moon are both opacous bodies, which receive their

light from the Sun. So whenever the Moon passes between the Earth and the Sun, in such a manner as to hinder the rays of the latter from falling on the Earth, then will the Sun be eclipsed to the inhabitants of the Earth: and whenever the Moon passes behind the Earth so as to hinder the rays of the Sun from falling on the Moon, then will the Moon be eclipsed to the inhabitants of the Earth. An Eclipse of the Sun can only happen at the Change of the Moon, when the Moon is between the Sun and the Earth; and an Eclipse of the Moon can only happen at the Full of the Moon, when the Earth is between the Sun and Moon. This will be evident by referring to the positions of the Sun, Moon, and Earth during the full and change, as exhibited in fig. 6 of Plate II.

48. The orbit of the Moon crosses the Ecliptic so as to make an angle of five degrees' inclination, and these points of intersection are called the *Nodes* of the Moon, being distinguished from each other as the ascending and descending: the *ascending node* is where the Moon ascends Northward above the ecliptic, and the *descending node*, where she descends Southward below the ecliptic; they are both marked in Plate II. fig. 7. Now, these Nodes, being the only two points where the Moon crosses the Ecliptic, hence, there can be no Eclipse of the Sun but when she changes in, or near, one of the Nodes, because then only she comes so between the Earth and Sun, as to intercept the rays of the latter from the Earth: and in like manner, there can be no eclipse of the Moon but when she is full in, or near, one of the Nodes, because then only the Earth comes so between her and the Sun, as to hinder the rays of the latter from falling on her. This is the reason why there is not an Eclipse of the Sun at every change of the Moon, and an Eclipse of the Moon at every full of the Moon.

49. The *Shadows* cast by the Earth and Moon are of a conical figure (as may be seen in fig. 7), growing narrower and narrower the farther they go from the Earth and Moon, until at last they end in a point, and so cease. This is owing to the Earth and Moon being smaller bodies than the Sun: were they the same size as the Sun, it is evident that the shadows must be cylindrical (as in fig. 8), and were they larger than the Sun, the shadows would be like inverted cones (as in fig. 9). And hence, in consequence of the Earth being much bigger than the Moon, the cone of its shadow is great enough to intercept the Sun's rays from the whole of the Moon's surface at one time: whilst, on the other hand, the Moon being smaller than the Earth, can intercept the Sun's rays only from a small part of the Earth at one time¹.

¹ Herein too, the much greater distance of the orbit of Mars becomes evident; for, though the Earth may be directly between the Sun and Mars, yet is the latter not eclipsed, as it must necessarily be, did the shade of the Earth reach to its orbit.

The Shadows of the Earth and Moon being thus of a *conical* figure, it is obvious, that an Eclipse of the Sun or Moon will be greatest or longest when the Moon is in her Perigee, or nearest the Earth; for then she has to traverse a thicker part of the Earth's shadow, than when eclipsed in her Apogee or greatest distance from the Earth. This may be seen in fig. 7, where P P denotes the breadth of the Earth's shadow traversed by the Moon in her Perigee, and A A so much of it, as is traversed by her when in her Apogee. And, in like manner, if the Sun be eclipsed when the Moon is in her Perigee, it meets with a thicker part of the Moon's shade than it does when she is in her Apogee; as may be also seen in fig. 7, by supposing T to be the Moon, P P her shadow traversed by the Earth when she is in her Perigee, and A A her shadow traversed by the Earth when she is in her Apogee.

50. But the *Greatness* and *Duration* of an Eclipse arise principally from the Moon's being then more, or less, distant from a Node. An Eclipse of the Moon is either *Total*, that is when the whole of her is eclipsed, or *Partial* when only a part of her is eclipsed: and as some partial eclipses are of longer duration than others, so some total eclipses are likewise of longer duration than others. Now, those Total Eclipses which are of the longest duration, happen when the Moon is *exactly* in a Node; they are called *Central* Eclipses, from the centre of the Moon passing through the centre of the Earth's shadow. This is illustrated in fig. 10 of Plate II., where the shaded circle represents the Earth's shadow, O M the Moon's orbit, and E C the Ecliptic: whence it is evident, that the Moon crossing the Earth's shadow in a *diametrical* direction, makes the longest possible stay she ever can make in it; this stay is about four hours long, the breadth of the Earth's shade being about three diameters of the Moon.

51. A *Total*, but not *Central*, Eclipse is represented in fig. 11, where the Moon meets the Earth's shadow at a small distance from a Node, and so crosses only a *Chord* (or portion) of the Earth's shadow, and not its diameter: whence likewise, it is evident, that this chord will be greater or smaller, according as the Moon is nearer to, or farther from, a Node, and that the duration of every Total Eclipse will necessarily depend on the length of this chord. Hence also it follows, that some Eclipses are more *Partial* than others, according as the Moon is at a greater, or less distance from a Node; and that the longer a Partial Eclipse is, so much more of the Moon passes through the shadow of the Earth. A *Partial* Eclipse is represented in fig. 12, where it will be seen, that the Node is at some distance from the centre of the Earth's shadow, and that, consequently, the Moon traverses so small a chord of this shadow, that the whole of her surface is not darkened. In order to distinguish the greatness of Partial Eclipses, it is usual to conceive the Moon's diameter as divided into twelve parts, called *Digits*; and to say, there are so many digits eclipsed, as there are such parts covered by the Earth's shadow, when the Eclipse is at the greatest. In all these Eclipses of the Moon, she enters the Western side of the shadow with her Eastern side: and so it is her Western side, which quits the shadow when the Eclipse ceases.

52. ECLIPSES OF THE SUN are also distinguished as *Total*, that is, when the Moon covers the whole body of the Sun from us, and as *Partial*, when she covers only a part of the Sun. When there is a Total Eclipse of the Sun it is so dark, that the Stars appear very visible, and there is even need of lamp-light; but, this total darkness, even under the most favourable circum-

stances, never lasts more than about five minutes; for, as soon as a very small part of the Sun's disc becomes uncovered, it affords us considerable light. But it has been already observed, that although the Earth can eclipse the whole enlightened hemisphere of the Moon, and so involve the whole of her body in darkness at the same time; yet, that the Moon (in consequence of her being so much smaller than the Earth) can never obscure more than a small part of the Earth at the same time. This will be seen by referring to fig. 13 of Plate II., where the Moon's shadow only covers a small part of the illuminated surface of the Earth, (viz. that between C. and D), so as totally to hide the Sun's rays from it; whilst, to the inhabitants of the adjoining tracts B C and D E, the Sun will appear to be but partially eclipsed; and, beyond this last (as is evident from the figure) there will be no eclipse of him at all.

53. It happens sometimes, that a Central eclipse of the Sun is not a Total eclipse, but that there is a ring, or circle of light all round the edge of the Moon (as in fig. 14), wherefore, such an eclipse is said to be *annular*. This annular appearance is occasioned by the conical shadow of the Moon being too short to reach quite to the Earth, owing to the Moon being in her Apogee: it may be better understood by referring to Plate II. fig. 7, and supposing S to represent the Sun, T the Moon and E the Earth.—In the greatest eclipses of the Sun, the Moon's shadow passes along the middle of the Earth; and such eclipses happen when the Moon is in a Node at the moment of her Change. If she be not too far from a Node, a part of her shadow will fall on some tract of the Earth, and there make a Total, or, at least, a Partial eclipse; and, in proportion as she is nearer to her Node and her Perigee, will be the greatness and length of the obscuration.

54. THE TIDES are caused chiefly by the attraction of the Moon, but partly by that of the Sun. The Sea flows (*i. e.* rises) as often as the Moon passes the meridian, both the arc above, and the arc below, the horizon; and it ebbs (*i. e.* falls) as often as she passes the horizon, both East and West. When the Moon is in the first, and third, quarters (*i. e.* when she is new and full), the tides are high and swift, and are called *spring-tides*; when she is in the second, and last, quarters (*i. e.* when she is a half-moon), the tides are lower and slower, and are called *neap-tides*.

55. But the lowest, as well as the highest water, will be found at the spring-tides; the neap-tides neither rising so high, nor falling so low: those spring-tides which happen at the time of the equinoxes, and whilst the Moon is in her Perigee, are always the highest. The Sea is observed to swell and flow from South to North for about six hours, after which it seems to rest for about a quarter of an hour; it then begins to fall and retire back again from North to South for six hours more, when, after an apparent pause of a quarter of an hour, it begins to flow again as before. Thus the sea flows and ebbs alternately twice a day, but not at the same hours; for the tides return later and later every day by $50\frac{1}{2}$ minutes, which is the excess of a lunar day above a solar one.

56. Though the action of the Moon has the greatest share in producing the tides, yet the action of the Sun adds sensibly to it when they unite their forces together, as is the case at the full and change of the Moon, when they are nearly in the same line with the centre of the Earth. Thus, at the change, when they are both on the same side of the Earth, they both conspire to raise the water in the zenith, and, consequently, in the nadir; but, when the Moon is at the full, and the Earth is between her and the Sun, one causes high water in the zenith and nadir, whilst the other does the same in the nadir and zenith: consequently, these are the highest tides, and are what are called Spring-tides. Farther, the action of the Sun diminishes the effect of the Moon's action in the first and last quarters, because the one raises the water whilst the other depresses it; then, therefore, the tides are the least, and are called neap-tides. But it must be observed, that the spring-tides do not happen precisely at new and full moon, nor the neap-tides at the quadratures, but a day or so afterwards; because, as in other cases, so in this, the effect is not greatest or least, when the immediate influence of the cause is greatest or least. This may be also observed with respect to the greatest heat and cold, which are not felt on the Solstitial days, when the action of the Sun is greatest and least. The tides rise to different heights in different parts of the world; in the Bristol Channel they rise above forty feet, and on the Eastern coast of North America more than fifty feet; but their average height is considerably under twenty feet.

CHAPTER II.

THE WORLD.

1. GEOGRAPHY is that Science which teaches the knowledge of the Earth; it derives its name from the Greek words $\gamma\eta$ *the earth*, and $\gamma\rho\acute{\alpha}\phi\omega$ *to describe*.

2. According to its strict etymology, Geography denotes the description of the *Earth* only, and is thus distinguished from Hydrography, which refers to the description of the *Sea*, or Water ($\theta\acute{\alpha}\lambda\alpha\varsigma$); but, as earth and sea are usually considered by Geographers, as the great component parts of the Terrestrial Globe, hence, the description of them both is generally included in the term Geography. In either of these senses, it differs from Cosmography, which is a description of the *Universe* ($\kappa\acute{o}\sigma\mu\omicron\varsigma$), as a part differs from the whole; and also from Chorography, which is the description of a *country* ($\chi\omega\rho\alpha$),

and from Topography, which is the description of a place (*τόπος*), as the whole differs from a part.

3. The situation of places is determined as to North or South by their latitude, and as to East or West by their longitude; and these distances are reckoned in degrees and minutes. Every circle, whatever may be its diameter, is divided into 360 degrees; this arose from the ancients supposing that the great circle in the heavens, called the Ecliptic, was traversed by the Sun in 360 days, and hence, they named each day's progress, which he made along this circle, a *gradus*, step or *degree*. Each Degree is subdivided into 60 minutes (or miles), and each minute into 60 Seconds, and these are denoted by the signs °, ', "; thus 51°. 30'. 45" means 51 degrees, 30 minutes, 45 seconds: moreover, N stands for North, and S. for South, Latitude; E. for East, and W. for West, Longitude.

4. The *Latitude* of a place is its nearest distance from the Equator, either North or South; when the place is North of the Equator it is said to be in North Latitude, when South of the Equator it is in South Latitude. And, because the Equator divides the Earth into two equal parts, which again are divided by the Axis of the Earth into two other equal parts, therefore, the whole great Meridian circle of the Earth is divided into four equal parts: and, as every circle contains 360 degrees, therefore, a fourth part of a circle can contain only 90 degrees. Hence it follows, that Latitude, which is the distance of a place from the Equator, either towards the North, or South, Pole, can never exceed 90 degrees; and, that every line of Latitude, inasmuch as it remains always parallel to the Equator, is therefore called a *Parallel*: thus we say the parallel of London, the parallel of Rhodes, &c. meaning to say, the line of latitude which runs through London, or Rhodes. Places situated on the Equator itself are said to have no latitude.

5. The *Longitude* of a place is its distance from a given spot, due East or West, and is measured either on

the Equator, or on some circle parallel to it. The meridian of this spot is called the First Meridian, and was placed by the ancients, at the Fortunate Islands, because they were unacquainted with any land farther Westward; but modern nations generally adopt the capitals, or observatories of their own countries as first Meridians, thus, the English reckon their longitude from London, or the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, the French from Paris, the Spaniards from Madrid, and so on. The line, which marks the longitude of a place, is called its *Meridian*, from the Latin word *meridies*, noon or mid-day, because, when the Sun passes this circle it is noon in all the places situated under it; for, as this line of longitude compasses the whole earth from pole to pole, there must be several places under the same meridian. A place is in East Longitude from the First meridian when it is East of it, and in West Longitude when it is West of it; for example, Rome is East, whilst Lisbon is West, of London. And, as the first meridian not only extends from pole to pole, but goes round the whole Earth, thus dividing it into two equal parts, called the Eastern and Western Hemispheres; and, as the whole circumference of the Equator (and of all the parallels which this first Meridian cuts in two) is 360 degrees, therefore, the half of this, that is 180 degrees, is the greatest longitude which a place can have either east or West. Places situated under the first meridian are said to have no longitude.

6. The application of the terms Latitude and Longitude arose from the ancients being acquainted with a much greater extent of the Earth's surface East and West than they were North and South; and hence, they properly used the term longitude or *length* to denote the greater dimension, and latitude or *breadth* to denote the smaller. But our increased knowledge of the Earth has entirely done away with this distinction, excepting so far as the polar diameter being shorter than the equatorial, still renders the application of the terms just and proper. With respect to Longitude, it must be observed, that some still place the First Meridian at *Ferro*, the Westernmost of the Fortunate Islands, but this arrangement is so very inconvenient that it is adopted only by a few. There are others also, who reckon the longitude entirely East or West (as it may be) round the globe, calling a place in 260 degrees East longitude, when it is actually in 100 degrees West longitude, and *vice versâ*; this may be easily remedied by subtracting the given

longitude (say 260°) from the whole circumference (360°), and the remainder (100°) will be the longitude according to the ordinary method of reckoning.

7. From this it is evident, that a line running through any place and passing over the poles, is the Meridian of that place ; and that another line, running through it at right angles to this meridian, and parallel with the equator, is the Parallel of the same place : whence it follows, that there may be as many meridians and parallels as there are points on the earth's surface. It follows also, that as all meridian lines must pass over both poles of the Earth, therefore, there must be the same number of miles in every one of them : whilst, on the other hand, every parallel becomes smaller as it advances towards the poles, and, therefore, contains a less number of miles ; for the pole itself is a mere point, whereas the equator is the greatest of all the circles of Latitude. This will be more apparent by referring to the map of the world, where the length of the line, which represents the Equator, is nearly seven and a half inches long, whilst the parallel of 80° is not one inch and a half. But it must be recollected, that though there is not the same number of *actual miles* in every parallel of latitude, there are yet as many *degrees* in it ; for we have it laid down as a rule, that all circles (be they great or small) contain 360 degrees. Therefore, though the parallel of 80° is so much smaller than the Equator, it contains precisely as many degrees of longitude as the Equator does : and places situated on this 80th parallel may be exactly in the same degree (say the 40th) of longitude, as places situated on the Equator ; for this reason, because the meridian of 40° must, as it passes from the equator through the poles, intersect every parallel of latitude in the same respective point. It will be remembered, then, that all the circles of latitude and longitude contain the same number of degrees, and that these degrees, considered as parts of a circle, bear always the same proportion to each other ; but, that whereas every degree of latitude contains 60 *actual miles*, the degrees of longitude contain a less number of miles in proportion as they advance towards the Poles.

8. The number of miles and seconds contained in a degree of Longitude, at every degree of latitude, will be found from the following Table :

Degree of Latitude	Length of a Degree of Longitude.	Degree of Latitude	Length of a Degree of Longitude.	Degree of Latitude	Length of a Degree of Longitude.	Degree of Latitude	Length of a Degree of Longitude.
°		°		°		°	
1	59. 56	24	54. 48	47	41. 0	70	20. 32
2	59. 54	25	54. 24	48	40. 8	71	19. 32
3	59. 52	26	54. 0	49	39. 20	72	18. 32
4	59. 50	27	53. 28	50	38. 32	73	17. 32
5	59. 46	28	53. 0	51	37. 44	74	16. 32
6	59. 40	29	52. 28	52	37. 0	75	15. 32
7	59. 37	30	51. 56	53	36. 8	76	14. 32
8	59. 24	31	51. 24	54	35. 26	77	13. 32
9	59. 10	32	50. 52	55	34. 24	78	12. 32
10	59. 0	33	50. 20	56	33. 32	79	11. 28
11	58. 52	34	49. 44	57	32. 40	80	10. 24
12	58. 40	35	49. 8	58	31. 48	81	9. 20
13	58. 28	36	48. 32	59	31. 0	82	8. 20
14	58. 12	37	47. 56	60	30. 0	83	7. 20
15	58. 0	38	47. 16	61	29. 4	84	6. 12
16	57. 40	39	46. 36	62	28. 8	85	5. 12
17	57. 20	40	46. 0	63	27. 12	86	4. 12
18	57. 4	41	45. 16	64	26. 16	87	3. 12
19	56. 44	42	44. 36	65	25. 20	88	2. 4
20	56. 24	43	43. 52	66	24. 24	89	1. 4
21	56. 0	44	43. 8	67	23. 28	90	0. 0
22	55. 36	45	42. 24	68	22. 32		
23	55. 12	46	41. 40	69	21. 32		

9. As Latitude respects the situations of Places Northward or Southward, and Longitude their situations Eastward or Westward, the degrees of the former are marked on the sides of a map, and the degrees of the latter at the top and bottom. For further convenience, the lines of some of these degrees are carried right across the map each way, at such distances from each other as its size will allow : therefore, all the lines running across a map from side to side are East and West lines (the right side being the East), and all the lines running across it from top to bottom are North and South lines (the top side being the North). When the degrees of Latitude increase upwards, the places are in North Latitude ; when

downwards, they are in South Latitude: when the degrees of Longitude increase to the right hand, the places are in East Longitude: when to the left hand, they are in West Longitude.

10. The student may find it a useful exercise to point out the latitudes and longitudes of the following places in the respective Maps of

England & Wales.	Italy.	South America.
London	Rome	Buenos Ayres
Canterbury	Florence	Rio Janeiro
Portsmouth	Leghorn	Cayenne
Bristol	Genoa	Valdivia
Liverpool	Turin	Lima
York	Milan	C. Horn
Carlisle	Venice	Bahia
Yarmouth.	Syracuse.	Trinidad.

11. The distance between any two places, *on the same meridian*, may be obtained at once, by adding their latitudes together when they are in different hemispheres, or subtracting them from each other when they are in the same hemisphere. Thus, suppose two places situated on the same meridian, but in opposite hemispheres, one in 50° N. Lat. and the other in 30° S. Latitude; $50'$ added to $30'$ are equal to $80'$, and, as there are 60 miles in every degree, therefore, 80° multiplied by $60'$, produce 4,800 miles, which is the true distance of these places from each other. Again, suppose two places situated on the same meridian and in the same hemisphere, one being in 60° N. Lat. and the other in 35° N. Latitude; 35° subtracted from 60° leave 25° , and this difference multiplied by 60 (the number of miles in every degree of latitude), produces 1,500 miles, which is the true distance of the two places from each other.

12. The same thing may be done to find the distance between two places situated *on the same parallel*, with this exception only, that the difference between their two longitudes (or the sum of them, according as it may be), instead of being multiplied by 60, must be multiplied by the number of miles contained in a degree of longitude on that parallel under which the two places lie: for, we have already seen, that this breadth of a degree diminishes as we approach the poles. Thus, suppose two places situated under the parallel of 60° , but one in 25° E. Longitude, and the other in 15° West Longitude; 25° added to 15° are equal to 40° ; and this again multiplied by 30 miles (which is the breadth of a degree of longitude on the parallel of 60° , as is shown by the Table in Sect. 8), produces 1,200 miles, which is the true distance of the two places from each other. Again, suppose two places situated under the parallel of 60° , but one in 170° E. Long., and the other in 90° East Longitude; 90° subtracted from 170° leave 80° , and this difference multiplied again by $30'$ (the breadth of a degree as above shown), produces 2,400 miles, which is the true distance required.

13. But, when two places are on different parallels, and under different meridians (as is generally the case), their distance must be measured on the map with a pair of compasses, and applied to the graduated scale of miles on *either side* of the map: not at the top or bottom of the map, for these graduations are degrees of longitude, and therefore, contain much less than 60 miles each. For instance, suppose it is required to know the distance of Rome from Carthage; having measured it in the map of Italy

with a pair of compasses, apply it to the side of the map, and you will find it is $5^{\circ} 20'$, which multiplied by $60'$, produces 320 miles, the true distance between the two places. But, as you have this distance in your compasses, apply it to the scale at the bottom of the map, and you will find it produces $6^{\circ} 35'$, whilst, at the top of the map, the same distance produces $7^{\circ} 45'$; a great difference this from the true measurement, and evidently showing, not only that the degrees of longitude are shorter than those of latitude, but that they diminish as we advance towards the Pole.

14. The miles, of which we have hitherto spoken, are *Geographical miles*, and are always understood to be used, except when other miles are specified; they must not be confounded with the *British Statute Mile*, which is the common itinerary measure of our country, and $69\frac{1}{2}$ of which are contained in a degree of latitude. The itinerary measures of the different nations vary exceedingly from each other, as well as from the Geographical mile.

15. As the Earth performs its revolution on its own Axis round the Sun in 24 hours, it is evident, that every point on the surface of the globe must have passed through 360 degrees of longitude in that time: and, as the motion of the Earth is from West to East, it is also evident, that places situated to the East of us will see the sun and the other heavenly bodies earlier than we do, whilst places situated to the West of us will see them later. Now, this difference in the time of two places East and West of each other seeing the same heavenly bodies, is called their *longitude in time*, and is easily calculated. For, if it takes 24 hours for 360 degrees to move round under the heavens, it will take 1 hour for 15° to move round under them, because 15° is one 24th part of 360° : and, by the same rule, a single degree will be 4 minutes of time in moving under the heavens, because 4 minutes is one 360th part of 24 hours. Therefore, supposing a place is 15° East of us, it sees the sun and stars an hour earlier than we do, but if as much West of us, it sees them as much later; if the place be 120° East of us, it will see the heavenly bodies 8 hours earlier than we shall, but if as much West of us, it will see them as much later. If a place be 10° East of us, it will see the heavenly bodies 40 minutes earlier than we do, but if as much West of us it will see them as much later.

16. By attending to this rule, it will be very easy to find what time of the day it is at any given place compared with another, for their difference of longitude in degrees, turned into longitude in time, is the difference of time between them. Thus, Ispahap in Persia, is $51^{\circ} 50'$ E. of London: now, *this longitude, turned into time*, is equal nearly to 3 hours and 24 minutes;

therefore, as Ispahan is East of London, it will be noon at it 3 hours and 24 minutes before it is noon at London; and when it is noon at London, it will be 24 minutes after 3 in the afternoon at Ispahan. Again, C. Verde is $17\frac{1}{2}$ degrees West of London, which longitude turned into time, is equal to 1 hour and 10 minutes; therefore, as C. Verde is West of London, it will be noon at London 1 hour and 10 minutes before it is noon at C. Verde; and, when it is noon at C. Verde, it will be 10 minutes after 1 at London.

17. Agreeable to these rules, the following questions may be solved :

When it is noon at London, what time is it at Calcutta? at Bombay? C. Comorin? Madras? and Seringapatam? (See the map of India.)—When it is 10 o'clock in the morning at London, what time is it at the Azores? at Newfoundland? at Washington? at St. Domingo? at C. Horn? and the Sandwich Islands? (See the map of the Western Hemisphere.)—If it is 11 o'clock in the morning at London, and 4 o'clock in the afternoon at another place, what is their difference of longitude in degrees?—If it is 4 o'clock in the afternoon at London, and 10 o'clock in the morning at another place, what is the longitude of that place from London!—When it is midnight at London, where is it noon?—When it is 5 in the morning at London, where is it 5 in the afternoon?—When it is noon at C. Verde, what time is it at Ispahan (See the maps of Africa and Persia)? What time at Smyrna? what time at Paphos (map of Asia Minor)? What time at Calcutta? and what time at Bombay (map of India)?

18. The Earth is divided, with respect to the various degrees of heat and cold, into five *Zones* (ζώναι *cingula*) or belts, viz. one Torrid, two Temperate, and two Frigid Zones. The Torrid Zone lies on each side of the Equator, extending to the two Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn, and is so called from its excessive heat; owing to its being within the two Tropics, the Sun passes twice a year through the Zenith of every place in it. The two Temperate Zones lie between the Tropics and the Polar Circles, so that there is one in each hemisphere; they are called temperate, because they are not subject to the excessive heat of the Torrid Zone, nor to the excessive cold of the Frigid Zones. The two Frigid Zones lie between the Polar Circles and the Poles, so that there is likewise one of them in each hemisphere; they are so called from the excessive cold to which they are subject, owing to the total absence of the Sun from them during a great part of the year.

19. The Earth is likewise divided into *climates*, as it respects the various lengths of the longest day in different places: for the length of the day at the Equator is always 12 hours; but, as we advance from the Equator to the Poles, the days increase in length during one half of the year; and this increase is greater as we approach the Poles, where the Sun is visible for six months of the year, and not visible for the other. Now, a climate is that

space of the Earth, where the longest day of one place exceeds the longest day of another by half an hour; and there are 24 such between the Equator and Polar Circles, as may be seen from the following table:

Climate.	Length of Longest Day.		Latitude.	Climate.	Length of Longest Day.		Latitude.
	H.	M.			H.	M.	
1 st	12.	30	8. 25	13 th	18.	30	59. 58
2	13.	0	16. 25	14	19.	0	61. 18
3	13.	30	23. 50	15	19.	30	62. 25
4	14.	0	30. 20	16	20.	0	63. 22
5	14.	30	36. 28	17	20.	30	64. 6
6	15.	0	41. 22	18	21.	0	64. 49
7	15.	30	45. 29	19	21.	30	65. 21
8	16.	0	49. 1	20	22.	0	65. 47
9	16.	30	51. 58	21	22.	30	66. 6
10	17.	0	54. 27	22	23.	0	66. 20
11	17.	30	56. 37	23	23.	30	66. 28
12	18.	0	58. 29	24	24.	0	66. 31

But, at the Polar Circles, the Sun remains above the horizon longer than one revolution of the Earth, and therefore, the length of day-light increases very rapidly towards the Poles, where (as we have seen) it continues six months together. For this reason, the Climates between the Polar Circles and the Poles are reckoned by months, and not by half-hours, thus:

Climates in Months.

1 st .	2 nd .	3 rd .	4 th .	5 th .	6 th .
Latitude, 67°. 15'	69°. 30'	73°. 20'	78° 20'	84°. 10'	90°. 0'

20. The terraqueous globe is made up of two great general parts, the Earth or *Land*, and Sea or *Water*, these two being again subdivided into smaller parts. A *Continent* is a vast tract of land, containing many countries and kingdoms hanging together, as it were, and, consequently, not easily distinguished to be surrounded with water, as, the continent of Europe, the continent of America. An *Island* is a smaller tract of land, entirely surrounded with water, as the island of Great Britain, the island of Sicily, the island of Borneo. A *Peninsula* or *Chersonese*, is a tract of land which is almost an island, being encompassed by water on all sides, except where it is joined to the main by a narrow neck of

land ; as the peninsula of South America, the peninsula of Spain. The narrow *neck* of land, which joins a peninsula to the main, is called an *Isthmus*, as the Isthmus of Corinth, the Isthmus of Suez, and the Isthmus of Darien.

21. A *Cape* or *Promontory* is a prominent eminence shooting out into the sea, and is also sometimes called a *Headland*, except when it is low and flat, and then, it is named a *Point* : as C. Trafalgar, the Cape of Good Hope, the Lizard Point. When the land rises above the level country, it is called a *Hill* or *Mountain*, as M^t. Ararat, M^t. Blanc ; and when this high land runs continuously through a country, or a number of countries, it is called a *Chain*, or *Ridge* of Mountains, as the Chain of the Alps, the chain of the Pyrenees, the chain of the Andes. A mountain, which casts forth flames, is called a *Volcano*, as the Volcano of *Ætna*, the Volcano of *Vesuvius*. The low ground between two mountains is named a *Valley*, and is generally traversed by a river, as the Valley of the Jordan, the Valley of the Nile. When a valley is exceedingly narrow, so as not to allow of its being crossed without difficulty, it is called a *Pass*, as the Passes of the Alps, the Pass of Schoumla.

22. A *River* is a body of water, flowing from elevated ground into the sea, more or less rapidly, and with a longer or shorter course, according to the nature of the ground through which it passes, and the quantity of water with which it is supplied ; as the R. Nile, the R. Thames, the R. Po: the place, where it bursts from the Earth, is called its *Source* or *Springs*, and its junction with the salt water of the sea is named its *Mouth*. We are said to *descend* a river, when we float down with its waters, and to *ascend* it, when we go up against the current of its waters : the *right* and *left* banks of a river are determined by its course to the sea, the right bank is on the right side, and the left bank on the left, to one descending it. A *Lake* is a great collection of water, surrounded on all sides by land, and having no communication with the sea except by a river or a subterraneous passage, as Lake Superior, the Lake of Geneva, Lake Tchad. *Morasses* or *Marshes* differ from lakes only in their not

being always full of water, as the Marshes of Venice, the Pontine Marshes, &c.

23. The *Ocean* is the wide open part of the sea, surrounding the land on all sides, and extending from one pole to the other : it is divided into several parts, for the convenience of description, as the Atlantic Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, &c. A *Sea* is a much smaller collection of water, nearly surrounded by land, and which may be again subdivided into several parts, as the Mediterranean Sea, the Black Sea. A *Gulf* or *Bay* is a branch of the sea running a considerable distance into the bosom of the land, as the Persian Gulf, the Arabian Gulf, Baffin's Bay, &c. A *Strait* is a narrow channel, connecting two seas together, or a sea with the ocean, as the Strait of Gibraltar, the Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb, &c.

24. Modern Geographers have divided the globe into four great parts, called *Quarters*, not that these parts are equal in size (for they are very unequal), but for the conveniency of having a general term to distinguish at once a great portion of the Earth. We could not use the term *Continent* for this purpose, because a continent is a vast tract of country *connected together*, and not composed of several parts separated from each other by the Ocean, as is the case in a *Quarter* of the World : for instance, though the British Isles are reckoned to Europe, yet they do not belong to the *continent* of Europe, because they are entirely separated from it by the Ocean : Ceylon, the East India Islands, Australia, and the Japanese Islands, are separated from the *continent* of Asia in the same way, and yet they belong to Asia : Madagascar, undoubtedly, forms part of Africa, though not of the *continent* of Africa : and the West Indian Islands are correctly said to be in America, though they form no part of the American *continent*. And, therefore, when we speak of a *Quarter* of the globe, we mean one of those four great divisions, into which, it is, as it were, divided by nature, each Quarter being composed of one great continent and many islands. These four great divisions of the globe are called Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. The three first of these are in the Eastern Hemisphere, and, from their having been known (though

imperfectly) to the ancients, they are called by us the *Old World*: America is in the Western Hemisphere, and was altogether unknown to the ancients; from its having been first discovered only three centuries and a half ago, we call it the *New World*. Of the three Quarters in the Eastern Hemisphere, Europe lies to the North West, Africa to the South West, and Asia to the East: America extends directly across the Western Hemisphere, nearly from Pole to Pole.

25. The superficial surface of the globe is equal to 148,187,500 square miles, of which about one fourth part (39,956,600 square miles) is land, and the remaining three-fourths (108,230,900 square miles) are water. Asia is the largest of the four quarters of the globe, America the next, Africa the third, and Europe the smallest; the estimated population and number of square miles contained in each, are as follow:

	Sq. Miles.	Souls.
Europe - - -	2,635,700	221,217,888
Asia - - -	15,526,300	475,620,000
Africa - - -	8,902,000	92,680,000
America - - -	12,892,600	40,890,000
Total - - -	39,956,600	830,407,888

26. The principal oceans in the world are, the Atlantic Ocean which extends from Europe and Africa to America, and is divided by the Equator into North and South; it stretches towards the South from C. Horn to the C. of Good Hope: it was so named by the Ancients after the famous M^t. Atlas, in Africa. The Indian Ocean, washing the Eastern coasts of Africa and the Southern coasts of Asia, extends from the C. of Good Hope to the Western shores of Australia; it is much smaller than the Atlantic, and derived its name from India and the Indian Isles, the shores of which are bathed by its waves. The Pacific Ocean, which lies between America and Asia, is the largest of all the great bodies of water bearing one name; it is remarkable for those extensive chains of *many islands* called by some Polynesia, (from πολλὸς multus and νῆσος insula), which lie scattered between the Equator and the Southern Tropic, forming, as it were, the straggling remnants of the great continent to which they appertain. *The Pacific Ocean* is divided by the equator

into North and South: it received its name from the Spaniards, who first navigated it, and who, having experienced in it during their first voyages calm and gentle weather, fancied that it was the same all over; but, although the part within the Tropics may occasionally justify the appellation they gave it, yet there are as severe tempests met with in the Pacific as in any other sea. It was also called the South Sea from the situation it appeared to have with respect to its first discoverers.

27. To the S. of these three lies the Southern Ocean, which extends completely round the globe, to the Antarctic Circle. The Antarctic Ocean lies between this last and the South Pole, and the Arctic Ocean between the Arctic Circle and the North Pole; these two are sometimes called the Frozen Oceans, from the excessive cold to which they are subject.

28. THE PRINCIPAL CHAINS OF MOUNTAINS in the world are, 1. in Europe: the Pyrenees, the Alps, the Balkan, the Carpathians, the Fiell, and the Oural M^s. 2. In Asia are: Mt. Caucasus, Mt. Libanus, Mt. Taurus or Ramadan Oglu, the Hindoo Coosh, the Ghauts, the Altai M^s., and the Himaleh the highest known mountains in the world. 3. In Africa are: Mt. Atlas, the M^s. of Kong, Gebel Kumri or the M^s. of the Moon, which are supposed to traverse the continent from East to West, and the M^s. of Lupata. 4. In America there is one great ridge which extends through its Western part, from the shores of the North Polar Sea to C. Horn: it is called the Rocky or Stony Mountains in North America, and the Andes or the Cordillera (i. e. Range) of the Andes in South America. The Alleghany and Blue M^s. in the United States are likewise worthy of mention. The most elevated known mountain of the world, though 26,462 feet high, is considerably less than one-fifteen hundredth part of the diameter of the Earth.

29. THE PRINCIPAL RIVERS in the world are, 1. in Europe, the Tagus or Tajo, the Loire, the Rhine, the Rhone, the Danube, the Dniepr, and the Don. 2. In Asia are: the Volga, the Euphrates, the Tigris, the *Jihon*, the Indus, the Ganges, the Burrampooter, the

Irrawaddy, the Cambodia, the Whang-Hai or Hoang-Ho, the Irtish, the Enisei, the Lena, the Amoor, and the Yang-tse-Kiang, the last being the longest river in the Eastern Hemisphere, and the second largest in the whole world. 3. In Africa are: the Nile, the Djyr, the Nigir or Quolla, the Senegal, the Congo, the Zambeze, and the Orange R. 4. In America are: the St. Lawrence, the Columbia, the Missouri, the Mississippi (the longest river in the world), the Orinoco, the Amazon, and the Rio de la Plata.

30. The CHIEF PROMONTORIES in the world are: in Europe, the North Cape in Sweden, the Northernmost point of the continent; C. Clear, the South Western extremity of Ireland; C. Finisterra and Gibraltar in Spain; and Cape Matapan in Greece. In Asia are: East Cape, the Eastern extremity of the continent; C. Musseldom and Ras-el-Had in Arabia; C. Comorin, the Southernmost point of India; and Romania Pt. at the extremity of Malacca. In Africa are: C. Bon, C. Spartel, C. Verde, the C. of Good Hope, and C. Guardafui. In America are: C. Prince of Wales, its Westernmost point, C. Horn its Southern extremity, C. S. Roque, and C. Cod.

31. The largest islands in the world are: in Europe, Great Britain, Ireland, and Nova Zembla: in Asia, Sumatra, Borneo, New Guinea, Australia (the largest island in the world, being nine-tenths as large as all Europe), New Zealand, and Nipon or Japan: in Africa, Madagascar: in America, Iceland, Newfoundland, Cuba, St. Domingo, and Terra del Fuego.

32. The size of these, and some other islands will be best seen by the following

SYNOPTICAL TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL ISLANDS
IN THE WORLD.

	Sq. Miles.		Sq. Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Andaman, G ^t .	2,600	Cephalonia -	225	Egripo -	1,000
Anglesey -	205	Ceylon -	19,400	Formosa -	12,100
Australia -	2,323,800	Corfu -	220	Fyen -	900
Borneo -	217,900	Corsica -	2,600	Gottland -	930
Britain, G ^t .	63,200	Cuba -	32,600	Hainan -	9,300
Candia -	2,400	Cyprus -	3,000	Hayti -	22,300
Celebes -	57,900	Dago -	260	Jamaica -	3,200

(continued.)

	Sq. Miles.		Sq. Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Java - - -	39,800	Man - - -	170	Scarpanto - -	125
Iceland - -	15,800	Newfoundland	38,100	Scio' - - -	225
Jesso - - -	21,900	New Guinea	247,300	Shetland - -	245
Ireland, - -	24,300	New Zealand	75,300	Sicily - - -	7,600
Kishm - - -	850	Nipon - - -	62,200	Sieland - - -	2,100
Lemnos - -	140	Nova Zembla	51,200	Socotra - - -	1,050
Lesbos - - -	435	Oesel - - -	780	Sumatra - -	120,200
Luton - - -	32,200	Rhodes - - -	460	Trinidad - -	1,470
Madagascar	177,200	Sagalin - -	20,700	Van Diemen's }	19,800
Madeira - -	520	Samo - - -	150	Land - - - }	
Malta - - -	100	Sardinia - -	7,700	Wight - - -	95

33. The following table will give a general idea of the respective sizes of the principal lakes and inland seas in the world :

SYNOPTICAL TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL LAKES AND
INLAND SEAS OF THE WORLD.

	Sq. Miles.		Sq. Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Aral Sea - -	13,900	Hudson's Bay	314,000	Persian Gulf -	63,400
Azov, Sea of -	9,700	Huron L. - -	10,700	Po-yang-Hou	960
Baikal L. - -	9,700	Keroun L. - -	148	Red Sea - -	133,500
Balkash L. -	3,700	Ladoga L. - -	5,600	Shahee L. - -	1,400
Bear L., Gt. -	10,300	Lomond L. - -	21	Slave L. - -	11,800
Black Sea -	102,800	Maggiore L. -	68	Superior L. -	27,900
Caribbean Sea	811,900	Manatoulin L.	5,000	Tchad L. - -	12,500
Caspian Sea	118,200	Mediterranean	700,600	Terkiri L. - -	2,600
Como, L. of -	54	Sea - - -		Titicaca L. -	4,900
Constance, L. of	166	Mexico, G. of	489,700	Tong-ting-Hou	1,550
Dead Sea - -	340	Michigan L. -	11,800	Trasimeno' L.	32
Dembea L. - -	1,130	Neagh L. - -	102	Van L. - - -	560
Enare Trask -	900	Ness L. - - -	15	Wenern L. - -	1,700
Erie L. - - -	8,400	Neufchatel, L. of	66	Wettern L. -	630
Erivan, L. of -	225	Nicaragua, L. of	4,800	Winder Mere	7½
Fucino L. - -	38	Onega L. - -	2,650	Winnipeg L.	7,800
Garda, L. di -	118	Ontario L. - -	5,500	Zarrah L. - -	480
Geneva, L. of -	185	Palte L. - - -	300		

CHAPTER III.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

1. EUROPE is bounded on the N. by the Arctic Ocean, and on the W. by the Atlantic : on the S. it is separated from Africa by the Mediterranean Sea, and from Asia on the East by the Archipelago, the Black Sea, the Sea of Azov, the Rivers Don and Volga, and the Oural

Mountains. Though it is by far the smallest of the four quarters of the globe, it is superior to them all in the genius, power, and learning, of its inhabitants, whose number is nearly double that of Africa and America taken together.

2. THE PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS of Europe are the Pyrenees, separating Spain from France, and stretching across the Isthmus which divides the two countries, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mediterranean Sea. The loftiest range of mountains in the whole continent is that of the Alps : it divides Italy from France, and sweeping round from the Mediterranean, through Switzerland and the Tyrol, traverses Turkey, where it assumes the name of Balkan, Hæmus, or Emineh, and terminates on the shores of the Black Sea. The chain of the Apennines traverses the whole of Italy, from the foot of the Alps on the borders of France, and the shores of the Mediterranean Sea, to the Southernmost point of the country opposite the Island of Sicily. The chain of the Pindus or Agrafa is a branch of the Hæmus or Balkan ; it runs through the middle of Macedonia and Greece, and terminates in C. Colonna, to the S. of Athens.

3. The ancient Hercynian Mountains are now known by several distinct appellations, such as the Erz, Giant Mountains, &c. ; they stretch right across Germany, in an Eastern direction, from the banks of the Rhine to the springs of the Vistula, where they assume the name of the Carpathians. Here they divide into two branches ; one of these, called the Bastarnic Alps, strikes Southward through Hungary (which kingdom it partly separates from Turkey), and crossing the Danube joins M^c. Hæmus ; the other trends Eastward, through Galicia and the Southern part of Russia, to the banks of the R. Dniepr and the shores of the Sea of Azov.

4. The rugged chain of mountains, called Fiell or Koelen, runs North and South through the whole of Scandinavia, parallel with its Western coast, and separates Sweden from Norway.

5. The Oural Mountains, the great natural barrier of the continent towards the N. E., stretch from the shores of the Frozen Ocean, in a Southern direction, to the head of the Caspian Sea.

6. The elevations of these and some other great mountains of Europe, above the level of the sea, will be found in the following table :

SYNOPTICAL TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS, &c.
IN EUROPE.

	Feet.		Feet.
Albarracin Mt., in Spain } (highest pt.) - - }	4,382	Joux, L. of, in Switzerland	3,230
Alps (Mt. Blanc, the } highest pt.) - - }	15,680	Jungfrau M ⁿ ., in ditto -	13,458
Apennines (Il Gran } Sasso, the highest pt.) }	8,790	Jura M ⁿ ., in ditto - -	6,173
Ardenne M ^s . (highest pt.)	1,811	Koelen or Fiell, (Skagstoll } Tind, the highest pt.) }	7,680
Baldo, M ^t ., in Venice -	7,340	Lyakoura (the ancient } Parnassus) in Greece }	7,500
Balkan (highest pt.) -	7,500	Macgillicuddy's Reeks } (highest pt. in Ireland) }	3,404
Bastarnic Alps (highest pt.)	9,900	Madrid, City of, in Spain	2,027
Ben Lomond, in Scotland	3,251	Maladetta M ⁿ ., in ditto -	10,760
Ben Nevis (highest pt. in } Albion - - - - }	4,335	Monserat, in ditto - -	3,300
Bernard, G ^t . St. - - -	11,007	Morena, Sierra, in Spain } (highest pt.) - - }	4,080
Bernard, Lit. St. - - -	7,200	Nevada, Sierra, in ditto	11,800
Black Forest (highest pt.)	4,788	Or, M ^t . d', in France -	6,410
Brenner M ⁿ ., in the Tyrol	4,930	Ortler Spitz, in the Tyrol	14,764
Cairn Gorm, in Scotland	4,064	Oural M ^t . (highest pt.)	6,780
Cantal, Plomb du, in France	6,178	Ozon, M ^t ., in France -	13,550
Carpathians (Lomnitz } Peak, the highest pt.) }	8,550	Pindus or Agrafa (high- } est pt.) - - - - }	8,500
Cebennes M ^s . (highest pt.)	5,500	Plesnid M ⁿ ., (the ancient } Pelion) in Greece }	4,000
Cervin, M ^t ., in Switzerland	14,617	Pyrenees (M ^t . Perdu, } the highest pt.) - }	11,272
Cheviot Hill, in England	2,658	Rigi, M ^t ., in Switzerland	6,189
Cimone, M ^e ., in Italy -	4,544	Rosa, M ^t ., in ditto - -	15,372
Constance, L. of, in } Switzerland - - - }	1,144	Santo, M ^e ., in Turkey -	6,400
Cross Fell, in England -	2,901	Sca Fell (highest pt. in } England) - - - }	3,166
Dome, Puy de, in France	4,953	Schreckhorn, in Switzerland	11,450
Elymbo, M ^t . (the ancient } Olympus) in Greece }	6,250	Simplon, Pass of, in ditto } (highest pt.) - - }	6,585
Etna, M ^t ., in Sicily -	10,940	Snowdon (highest pt. in } Wales - - - - }	3,571
Fichtelberg, in Bavaria -	3,852	Stromboli, M ^t ., in the } Lipari I ^s . - - - }	2,684
Frau M ⁿ ., in Switzerland	11,517	Syltoppen, M ^t ., in Sweden	6,474
Geneva, Lake of, in ditto	1,193	Valino, M ^t ., in Naples -	8,245
Gibraltar, Rock of, in Spain	1,439	Vesuvius, M ^t ., in ditto -	3,820
Glockner M ⁿ ., Gross, in } the Tyrol - - - - }	12,980	Vosges M ^s ., in France } (highest pt.) - - }	4,588
Gothard, M ^t . St., in Swit- } zerland - - - - }	9,510	Wrekin, in England - -	1,320
Harz, in Brunswick -	3,716	Zagora, M ^t ., (ancient } Helicon) in Greece }	4,500
Hercynian M ^t . (Schnee- } berge, the highest pt.) }	5,154		
Ida, M ^t ., or Psiloriti, in } Candia - - - - }	7,668		

7. THE EUROPEAN STATES may be divided into the Western, the Central, the Southern, and the Northern. In the West are the kingdoms of Portugal, Spain, France, Belgium, Holland, Great Britain and Ireland, and the Republic of Switzerland. In the Central part of the continent are the kingdom of Denmark, the Grand Duchies of Oldenburg, Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, and Mecklenburgh-Schwerin, the kingdoms of Hanover, Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, the several petty German States, and the Empire of Austria. In the South are the kingdoms of Lombardy-Venice, Sardinia, and Naples, the State of the Church, the Grand Duchy of Tuscany, and the Duchies of Parma, Modena, and Lucca, all which are in Italy: together with the Empire of Turkey, the kingdom of Greece, and the Republic of the Ionian Isles. In the North are the Empire of Russia and the kingdom of Sweden and Norway.

8. The Western States. The basis of the present Political Divisions of Europe will be found to accord, in a general manner, with that of its ancient Countries. In the Westernmost part of the continent is the Kingdom of Portugal, corresponding nearly with the ancient Lusitania: its chief cities are Lisbon, Oporto, and Coimbra. To the E. of it is the Kingdom of Spain, the chief cities of which are Madrid, Barcelona, Seville, Cadiz, and Granada. At the Southern extremity of Spain is the famous fortress of Gibraltar, which the ancients called Calpe, or the Northern Pillar of Hercules; it belongs to the British, and, owing to its excellent situation as well as its amazing strength, it is considered the key of the Mediterranean. The Kingdom of France lies to the N. of Spain, and corresponds generally with the ancient Gaul, but includes likewise the island of Corsica. Amongst its chief cities are Paris, Strasbourg, Lyons, Marseilles, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Orleans, Brest, and Rouen. To the E. of France lies the Republic of Switzerland, or the Helvetic Confederacy as it is sometimes called; its chief towns are Geneva, Bern, Zurich, and Basel. To the N. E. of France is the Kingdom of Belgium, the capital of which is Brussels; and beyond it is the Kingdom of Holland, the chief cities of which are The Hague, Amsterdam, and Rotterdam. To the N. of France lies the Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, including England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland. The chief cities in England are London, Canterbury, Bristol, Liverpool, and York; in Wales are Caermarthen, Swansea, and Pembroke; in Scotland are Edinburgh, Glasgow, Perth, Aberdeen, and Inverness; in Ireland, Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Galway, Sligo, and Londonderry. There are three small islands belonging to Britain, which lie in the English Channel opposite Dorsetshire, and only a small distance from the N. W. coast of France; their names are Guernsey, Jersey and Alderney.

9. The Central States. Germany is now divided into a great number of independent states, some exceedingly diminutive, whilst others are of very considerable magnitude and importance; they are all formed into a Federative Body, governed by a *Diet*. Above them is the Kingdom of Denmark,

comprising the old peninsula of the Cimbri, and some of those islands, which the ancients reckoned to Scandinavia: its metropolis is Copenhagen. To the S. of it lie the two Grand Duchies of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz and Mecklenburgh-Schwerin, the respective capitals of which are Strelitz and Schwerin; the Kingdom of Hanover, with its metropolis, Hanover; and the Grand Duchy of Oldenburg, with its capital of the same name. The Kingdom of Prussia occupies the whole N. E. part of Germany, extending some distance beyond the Vistula; its metropolis is Berlin, on the R. Spree. It likewise possesses a large extent of territory on the Rhine (called Rhine-Prussia), between the Kingdoms of Holland and Belgium on the West, and the petty states of Germany on the East; the chief towns in it are Cologne and Coblenz. To the E. of the petty states lies the Kingdom of Saxony, the capital of which is Dresden. To the S. of Saxony and Prussia is the extensive Empire of Austria, stretching far beyond the limits of ancient Germany to the Eastward, and including the N. E. part of Italy: its metropolis is Vienna on the Danube. Between the Austrian Empire and the Rhine lie the Kingdoms of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, and the Grand Duchy of Baden; their chief cities are Munich, Stuttgart, and Carlsruhe.

10. The Southern States. Italy is likewise divided into several states, varying much in dignity and magnitude. That part of it, which lies to the N. of the Po and East of the Ticino, is called the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom, and belongs to the Empire of Austria: its chief cities are Milan and Venice. To the W. of it, touching upon Switzerland, France, and the Mediterranean, lie Piedmont, Genoa, Savoy, and the other provinces, which constitute the continental territory of the Kingdom of Sardinia, the Island of Sardinia forming its remainder; the chief cities are Turin on the continent, and Cagliari in the island. To the S. of the Po, and East of the Sardinian territory, are the Duchies of Parma, of Modena, and of Lucca, each with its capital of the same name: to the S. of these is the Grand Duchy of Tuscany, with its metropolis, Florence. The State of the Church, governed by the Pope, comprises the central part of Italy, from the Mouths of the Po to the Pontine Marshes; the chief city is Rome. The Kingdom of the Two Siciles (or of Naples) includes the Southern part of Italy, and the I. of Sicily; its capital city is Naples. To the S. of Sicily are the Maltese Islands, which belong to the English, and are composed of the two islands Malta and Gozo: Valetta, their chief city, is one of the strongest places in the world. To the S. of Austria lies the Empire of Turkey, composed of the ancient Thracian provinces on the Danube, together with Macedonia, parts of Illyria, Epirus, and Thessaly, Crete and several islands in the Ægean Sea: its metropolis is Constantinople. To the S. of Turkey is the Kingdom of Greece, including the Southern part of ancient Greece, with Negropont and the Western Islands of the Archipelago; its metropolis is Athens. To the W. of Greece is the Republic of the Ionian Islands (or of the Seven Islands, as it is sometimes called) under the protection of Great Britain: their metropolis is Corfu.

11. The Northern States. To the E. of Prussia, Austria, and Turkey, is the enormous Empire of European Russia, extending to the utmost Eastern limits of the continent, and to the shores of the Frozen Sea: its chief cities are Moskow, St. Petersburg, Archangel, Riga, Warsaw, and Odessa. The Kingdom of Sweden and Norway includes the great peninsula of Scandinavia, to the West of Russia, and to the N. of Prussia and Denmark: its chief cities are Stockholm, Tornea, Christiana, Bergen, and Trondheim.

12. The superficial extent, and the estimated population of each country in Europe, will be seen by the following table:

STATISTICAL TABLE OF EUROPE.

	Square Miles.	Souls.
Austria, Empire of - - - -	197,000	28,701,115
Baden, Grand Duchy of - - - -	4,350	1,000,000
Bavaria, Kingdom of - - - -	22,850	3,560,000
Belgium, Kingdom of - - - -	9,450	3,776,168
British Empire - - - -	91,700	24,415,106
Church, State of the - - - -	13,300	2,590,000
Denmark, Kingdom of - - - -	18,250	1,937,283
France, Kingdom of - - - -	160,300	31,851,545
Germany, Petty States of - - - -	13,000	3,185,525
Greece, Kingdom of - - - -	14,200	496,000
Hanover, Kingdom of - - - -	11,500	1,434,126
Holland, Kingdom of - - - -	8,000	2,130,880
Ionian Islands, Republic of the - - - -	870	227,000
Lucca, Duchy of - - - -	310	143,000
Luxemburg, Grand Duchy of - - - -	1,550	298,952
Marino, Republic of San - - - -	40	7,000
Mecklenburg-Strelitz and Schwerin, Grand } Duchies of - - - - }	4,350	429,769
Modena, Duchy of, with Massa and Carrara - - - -	1,820	380,000
Naples, Kingdom of - - - -	31,700	7,160,794
Oldenburg, Grand Duchy of - - - -	1,730	217,769
Parma, Duchy of - - - -	1,840	440,000
Portugal, Kingdom of - - - -	26,200	3,683,400
Prussia, Kingdom of - - - -	83,300	10,586,071
Russia, Empire of - - - -	1,319,500	55,716,322
Sardinia, Kingdom of - - - -	23,900	4,100,000
Saxony, Kingdom of - - - -	4,400	1,233,259
Spain, Kingdom of - - - -	145,100	13,732,172
Spitzbergen - - - -	16,500	—
Sweden and Norway, Kingdom of - - - -	220,800	3,774,910
Switzerland, Republic of - - - -	12,800	1,945,260
Turkey, Empire of - - - -	162,600	9,394,000
Tuscany, Grand Duchy of - - - -	6,320	1,275,000
Wurtemberg, Grand Duchy of - - - -	6,170	1,395,462
Total in Europe - - - -	2,635,700	221,217,888

13. THE PRINCIPAL RIVERS of Europe are: in Spain, the Ebro, which runs into the Mediterranean Sea; the Douro, the Tagus or Tajo, the Guadiana, and Guadalquivir, which empty themselves into the Atlantic Ocean. In Gaul are, the Garonne, Loire, Seine, and Meuse or Maas, which flow into the Atlantic and British Oceans; and the Rhone, which runs into the Mediterra-

nean Sea. Amongst the most important rivers in Albion are, the Thames, the Severn, the Wye, the Ouse, and the Clyde: in Ireland we find the Shannon, the Black-water, and the Boyne. The greatest rivers of Germany are, the Rhine, the frontier between it and France, and the most beautiful river in Europe; the Weser, Elbe, Oder, and Vistula; the three first of these run into the German Ocean, the two last into the Baltic Sea. The two great rivers of Italy are, the Po, which flows into the Gulf of Venice, and the Tiber or Tevere, which runs into the Mediterranean Sea.

14. But by far the largest and most important river in Europe is the Danube, which rises on the borders of France and Germany, and flows, with an Easterly course, through the Empires of Austria and Turkey into the Black Sea: it receives in its way several considerable tributaries, as the Drave and Save on its right bank, and the Theiss and Pruth on its left bank. In the Southern part of Russia we meet with the Boug and the great Dniepr, which both empty themselves into the Black Sea; the Don, flowing into the Sea of Azov, and the Volga which enters the Caspian Sea, and is partly in the continent of Asia. In the Northern part of Russia are the Pitchora and the Dvina or river of Archangel, which both enter the Frozen Ocean; the Neva or River of St. Petersburg, which runs into the G. of Finland; the Southern Dvina, and the Neman, which both run into the Baltic Sea, the former at Riga, the latter near Memel.

15. The following table will convey a better idea of the actual and comparative lengths of these rivers:

SYNOPTICAL TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL RIVERS OF EUROPE.

	Miles.		Miles.
Boug - - - -	470	Drave - - - -	380
Clyde - - - -	83	Dvina (of Archangel) -	915
Danube - - - -	1,700	Dvina (of Riga) - - -	554
Dniepr - - - -	1,260	Ebro - - - - -	370
Dniestr - - - -	823	Elbe - - - - -	640
Don - - - - -	1,260	Garonne - - - - -	330
Douro - - - -	410	Guadalquivir - - - -	330

(continued.)

	Miles.		Miles.
Gardiana - - -	470	Seine - - -	416
Loire - - -	540	Severn - - -	185
Meuse - - -	511	Shannon - - -	192
Neman - - -	515	Tagus - - -	530
Oder - - -	503	Tay - - -	117
Pitchora - - -	949	Thames - - -	204
Po - - -	370	Theiss - - -	570
Proth - - -	430	Tiber - - -	215
Rhine - - -	737	Vistula - - -	576
Rhone - - -	442	Volga - - -	2,100
Save - - -	450	Weser - - -	440

16. **PRINCIPAL GULFS AND SEAS in Europe.** The White Sea is a part of the Frozen Ocean which runs some distance into the Northern Provinces of Russia. The North Sea, or German Ocean as it is likewise called, is an arm of the Atlantic Ocean lying between Great Britain on the West; Belgium, Holland, and Hanover, on the South; and Denmark and Sweden on the East. The Baltic Sea washes the shores of Sweden and Denmark on the West, Prussia on the South, and Russia on the East; its Northern part runs far up into the land between Sweden and Russia, and is called the Gulf of Botnia: besides this it has two inlets to the Eastward in Russia, called the Gulf of Riga and the Gulf of Finland. The Bay of Biscay is that part of the Atlantic which rolls in upon the angle formed by the Western Coast of France and the Northern coast of Spain.

17. The Gulf of Lyons is the North Western part of the Mediterranean Sea, washing the Southern shores of France between the Pyrenees and Toulon, round the Mouths of the Rhone: to the Eastward of it is the Gulf of Genoa, which lies between the North Western part of Italy and the projection of the Maritime Alps into the Sea. The Gulf of Venice, or the Adriatic Sea as it is also called, runs up between Italy on the West and the Empires of Turkey and Austria on the East. The Great Gulf of the Archipelago is bounded on the West by Greece, on the N. by the provinces of European Turkey, and on the E. by Asia Minor: towards the S. it is locked in, as it were, by the Island of Candia.

18. The Sea of Marmora lies at the N. E. extremity of the Archipelago, from which it is separated by the narrow channel of the Hellespont or Dardanelles; it washes the shores of European Turkey on the North, and those of Asia Minor on the South, and is connected with the Black Sea by the Channel of Constantinople or the Bosphorus. The Black Sea, or Euxine Sea as it is also named, lies at the South Eastern extremity of Europe, between European Russia on the North, European Turkey on the West, Asia Minor on the South, and Asiatic Russia on the East. Connected with it towards the North is the Sea of Azov, into which the R. Don discharges its waters.

19. **PRINCIPAL STRAITS in Europe.** The Northern part of the channel between Denmark and Sweden is called the Skager-Rack, and its South Eastern continuation is named the Cattegat: the Sound, the Great Belt, and Little Belt, are three smaller channels, which lead from the Cattegat directly into the Baltic Sea. The English Channel is the name given to that arm of the Atlantic Ocean, which runs up between the Southern shores of England and the Northern shores of France: at its Eastern extremity is the Strait of Dover, which connects it with the North Sea, and lies between the county of Kent in England and the Province of Picardy in France. The Sea between Great Britain and Ireland is called St. George's Channel or the Irish Sea, though the former appellation is sometimes restricted to that portion of the Channel alone which lies between Wales and Ireland.

20. The Strait of Gibraltar is the Western extremity of the Mediterranean Sea, which it connects with the Atlantic Ocean; it lies between the province of Seville in Spain, and the kingdom of Fez in Africa. The Strait of Messina, the central part of the Mediterranean Sea, is that narrow passage by which the Island of Sicily is separated from the province of Calabria in Italy. The channel connecting the Gulf of Venice with the remainder of the Mediterranean Sea is called the Strait of *Otranto*; it lies between the province of Otranto in Italy and *Albania* in Turkey. The channels of the Darda-

nelles [or Hellespont] and of Constantinople [or the Bosphorus] lie between the province of Rumilia in European Turkey, and the North Western extremity of Asia Minor: the former connects the Sea of Marmora with the Archipelago, and the latter joins it with the Black Sea. The Strait of Enikale forms the junction between the Sea of Azov and the Euxine, and separates the Eastern part of the Crimea in European Russia, from the rest of the province of Taurida in the continent of Asia.

21. THE CHIEF CAPES, of Europe are, the North Cape, the Northern extremity of Sweden, and likewise the Northernmost point of the Continent; the Naze, the South Western point of Sweden, at the entrance of the Skager-Rack; the Skaw, the Northernmost land of Denmark; Cape Clear, the Southern extremity of Ireland; and the Lizard Point, the Southernmost Cape of Great Britain. Besides these there are C. S. Matthew, the Westernmost point of France; C. Ortegal and C. Finisterra, the North Western extremities of Spain; C. S. Vincent, the South Western point of Portugal; the Rock of Gibraltar, the Southernmost point of Spain; C. Spartivento, the Southern extremity of Italy; and C. Matapan, the Southernmost point of Greece and of the whole continent of Europe.

CHAPTER IV.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

1. THE British Islands consist of two islands lying East and West of each other, called Great Britain or Albion and Ireland or Erin. Of these the former is by far the greater.

2. Great Britain includes England, Wales, and Scotland, and contains with its islands 67,160 square miles. It is bounded on the W. by St. George's Channel, the

Irish Sea, and part of the Atlantic Ocean; on the N. by the Orkney Sea; on the E. by the German Ocean or North Sea; and on the S. by the English Channel. The narrowest part of this last, where England and France approximate the nearest, is called the Strait of Dover, and is only 18 miles across; it has been supposed by many that the two countries were once connected together, but that they were torn asunder in some great convulsion of nature.

3. The distance from the North Foreland at the Eastern extremity of Kent, to the Land's End at the Western extremity of Cornwall, measures 283 miles in direct distance; and this is the greatest breadth of Great Britain. Its greatest length may be reckoned from the Lizard Point, which is the Southernmost cape of Cornwall, to Dunnet Head the Northernmost extremity of Scotland, which two places are 530 miles apart in direct distance: but the Eastern side of the Island, from Dunnet Head to the North Foreland, only measures 470 miles.

4. Ireland lies to the W. of Britain, from which it is separated by St. George's Channel and the Irish Sea; on the three other sides its shores are washed by the Atlantic. The nearest points of contact between the two islands are the promontories called Fair Head and the Mull of Cantire, which are only 10 miles apart. It contains 24,300 square miles, being the largest island in Europe next to Great Britain. Its greatest length is 260 miles, and its average breadth about 140; but, owing to the deep indentations of the coast, there is not a spot in the whole island that is 50 miles distant from the sea.

5. THE RANGES OF HILLS traversing Great Britain, though by no means inconsiderable, are not lofty compared with those of some other countries. The highest points in the whole island are to be found in and near the Grampian Mountains in the heart of Scotland: of these the chief are Ben Nevis and Cairn Gorm in Inverness, Ben Lawers and Schiehallion in Perth, Ben Lomond in Stirling, and Hart Fell in Dumfries. It is the Grampian range which divides the whole of Scotland into the

Highlands and Lowlands, the former comprehending the N. and N. W. parts of the country, and the latter the S. and S. E. parts. The Grampians continue winding in a Southerly direction, till they reach the frontiers of England and Scotland; here they attach themselves to the Cheviot Hills, running from N. E. to S. W. along the borders of the county of Northumberland, which they separate from the Scotch shire of Roxburgh. This last range formed a free chase, commonly called Chevy Chase, rendered famous by the well known ballad of that name, founded on an encounter which took place at Otterburn, A. D. 1388, between the families of Percy and Douglas.

6. From the Cheviot Hills a range winds to the Southward, through the counties of Cumberland, Durham, Westmorland, York, and Derby; it contains the most elevated hills in England, amongst others those of Skiddaw, Cross Fell, and Sca Fell in Cumberland, and Ingleborough and Pen-nigant in Yorkshire. Another great range strikes off from the mouth of the R. Humber, winds through the counties of Lincoln, Rutland, Northampton, Warwick, and Gloucester, and terminates, in a manner, above Bath on the River Avon: the Southern part of this range is called the Cotswold Hills, and contains the sources of the famous R. Thames.

7. The whole of the Southern counties, from the N. Foreland to the Land's End, are intersected by a continuity of ranges of various heights and names, which traverse the country in the most beautiful manner, and rise to the greatest height in Devonshire. Amongst their highest points may be enumerated Shooter's Hill in Kent, Leith Hill in Surrey, Chanctonbury Hill in Sussex, Black Down in Dorset, and Buttern Hill in Devon.

8. Wales is a very mountainous country, being intersected from North to South by one principal range, which throws off many arms both towards the sea-coast and the English counties: it contains higher land than any in England. Its most elevated summits are Snowdon and Carnedd-Llewellyn in Caernarvonshire, Arran Fowddy and Cader Idris in Merioneth, and the Beacons of Brecknock.

9. The heights of the principal mountains in Great Britain may be seen in the following tables :

PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

	Feet.		Feet.
Alnwick Moor, Northumb.	808	Farley Down, Glouc. -	700
Arbury Hill, Northampt.	804	Helvellin, Cumb. - -	3,055
Arran Fowddy, Merion. -	2,955	Holme Moss, Derbys. -	1,859
Ash Beacon, Somers. -	655	Holyhead Mn., Anglesea	709
Axedge, Derbysh. - -	1,751	Ingleborough Hill, Yorks.	2,361
Banstead, Surrey - -	576	Leith Hill, Surrey - -	993
Bardon Hill, Leicesters. -	853	Llangeinor Mn., Glam.	1,859
Beachy Hd., Sussex - -	564	Lord's Seat, Derbys. -	1,751
Beacons of Brecknock -	2,862	Malvern Hill, Worc. -	1,444
Black Comb, Cumb. - -	1,919	Nettlebed, Oxfords. -	820
Black Down, Dorsets. -	817	Nine Standards, Westmor.	2,136
Black Hambleton, Yorks.	1,246	Pennigant, Yorks. - -	2,270
Bleasdale Forest, Lanc. -	1,709	Pillar, Cumb. - - -	2,893
Bow Fell, Cumb. - - -	2,911	Plynlimmon, Cardigan -	2,463
Brown Clay Hill, Salop -	1,805	Radnor Forest - - -	2,163
Butterton Hill, Devon. -	1,203	Rivel Mn., Caern. - -	1,866
Cader Idris, Merion. - -	2,914	Roseberry Topping, Yorks.	1,022
Caermarthen Van - - -	2,596	Saddleback, Cumb. - -	2,787
Carn Fell, Yorks. - - -	2,245	Sca Fell, Cumb. - - -	3,166
Carnedd David, Caern. -	3,427	Sherwood Forest, Notts.	600
Carnedd Llewellyn, Caern.	3,469	Shooter's Hill, Kent -	446
Chanctonbury Hill, Suss.	814	Skiddaw, Cumberland -	3,022
Cheviot, Northumb. - -	2,658	Snowdon, Caernarvon -	3,571
Coniston Fell, Lancas. -	2,577	Stow Hill, Heref. -	1,417
Cradle Mn. Breck. - -	2,545	Whernside, Yorks. - -	2,384
Cross Fell, Cumb. - - -	2,901	Wrekin, Salop - - -	1,320
Epwell Hill, Oxfords. -	836		

10. PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS IN SCOTLAND.

	Feet.		Feet.
Aildon Hills, Roxburgs. -	1,364	Ben More, Perth. - -	3,903
Ailsa Rock - - -	940	Ben Nevis, Inverness -	4,335
Battock Mn, Kincard. -	3,465	Ben-na-muick-dui, Aber- } deens. - - - -	4,327
Ben-a-chaoilois, Jura - -	2,350	Ben Venu, Perth. - -	3,000
Ben Bharfion, Arran - -	2,980	Ben Voirlich, Perth. -	3,300
Ben Challin, Perth. - -	3,000	Ben Wyvis, Ross - -	3,720
Ben Chonzie, Perth. - -	2,922	Buck Hill, Aberdeens. -	2,377
Ben Dierg, Perth. - -	3,550	Cairn Gorm, Inverness -	4,064
Ben Gloe, Perth. - -	3,724	Craig Patrick, Inverness	1,150
Ben Lawers, Perth. - -	4,015	Hartfell, Dumfries - -	3,900
Ben Ledi, Perth. - -	3,000	Kerlvack, Kincardines. -	1,890
Ben Lomond, Stirlings. -	3,251		

(continued.)

	Feet.		Feet.
Largo Law, Fifes. - -	952	Mordington Hill, Berwicks.	641
Lead Hills, Lanark - -	1,560	Morvern, Aberdeens. -	3,500
Loch - na - gar - Cacurn, } Aberd. - - - - - }	3,824	Morvern, Caithness - -	1,929
Lomond Hill, West, Fifes.	1,721	Queensberry Hill, Lanark	2,259
Meal Fourvouny, In- } verness - - - - - }	3,070	Schiehallion, Perth. -	3,564
		Rona's Hill, Orkney -	3,944
		Rona's Hill, Shetland -	1,500

11. The chains of mountains in Ireland are neither numerous nor important; for, though it contains many hills of considerable elevation, yet they are not of that height, nor collected into such masses, as to give it the character of a mountainous country. They generally form short lines or detached groups, which are so dispersed through the island, that there are few places where the prospect is not terminated by this majestic scenery. The highest mountains in Ireland are at its South Western part, in the province of Munster, and near the Lake of Killarney; they are called Macgillicuddy's Reeks; but there are several points, not far off, little inferior to them in elevation. The Sliebh-Bloom mountains, which divide the King's and Queen's counties, form a great chain on the Western side of the province of Leinster; to the East of them, in the same province and not far from the shores of the Irish Sea, are the Wicklow Mountains, less remarkable for their height than for their beautiful and romantic scenery.

12. The Mourne Mountains are at the S. E. extremity of the province of Ulster, and contain many elevated points, as do also the Spenin M^s., in the Northern part of the same province; but none of these are so remarkable or so interesting as the Giant's Causeway, which is a promontory on the North coast of the county of Antrim, formed by many thousand basaltic columns running out a great way into the sea. The Northern peninsula of Connaught contains many mountainous tracts; amongst which we may mention Croagh Patrick and Nephin M., in the county of Mayo, towering to a great height above the surrounding country.

13. The elevations of these and some other mountains, above the level of the sea, may be seen in the following table :

PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS OF IRELAND.

	County.	Feet.		County.	Feet.
Agnew's Hill - -	Antrim	1,450	Macgillicuddy's	Kerry - -	3,404
Benyevenagh - -	Londond.	1,250	Reeks - -		
Commeragh - -	Waterf.	2,160	Mangerton - -	Kerry - -	2,780
Croaghan - - -	Wicklow	1,900	Mourne Ms. - -	Down - -	3,150
Croagh Patrick -	Mayo -	2,595	Nephtin - - -	Mayo -	2,634
Cronebane - - -	Carlow -	1,000	Sa-well - - -	Londond.	1,600
Knock-na-Muilrea	Mayo -	2,733	Sliebh-Bloom -	King's co.	2,900
Knock-mele-Down	Waterf.	2,700	Sliebh-Donard -	Down -	2,803
			Sliebh-Gallan	Londond.	1,250

14. **PRINCIPAL RIVERS of England.** The Thames is the largest river in the United Kingdom ; it rises in the Cotswold Hills, in Gloucestershire, and flows with an Easterly direction, for 204 miles, into the North Sea ; Shoebury Ness in Essex, and Sheerness in Kent, may be considered as the common limits of the estuary and river, and to them the above-mentioned length applies. The greatest tributaries of the Thames are the Lea, the Coln, the Thame, and the Charwell, which all enter its Northern bank ; the Kennet, the Way, and the Medway, enter its right Bank ; the last rather joins the estuary of the Thames than the river itself, as its mouth is at Sheerness. The Severn rises in Plynlimmon, on the borders of Cardiganshire and Montgomeryshire, and runs, with a curved and generally Southerly direction, into the Bristol Channel ; its length to the mouth of the Bristol Avon is 185 miles.

15. After two-thirds of its course the Severn receives on its left bank, at Tewksbury, the R. Avon, which rises on the borders of Leicestershire, Northamptonshire, and Warwickshire, and runs past Warwick and Stratford ; which last town gave birth to our immortal Shakspeare. Another R. Avon, called also Nen, rises in Northamptonshire, at no great distance from the preceding river, flows with a North-easterly course past Northampton and Peterborough, and having joined the Welland, runs into The Wash. The little R. Avon, which runs past Bath and Bristol into the Bristol Channel, and partly forms the boundary between the counties of Gloucester and Somerset, must not be confounded with either of the other Avons : indeed, there are several other rivers bearing the name of Avon in England, a circumstance which is accounted for by Avon signifying river in the language of the ancient Britons.

16. In the Southern part of England we may notice the R. Stour, in Kent, which runs past Canterbury, and entering the sea at two mouths (the one at Richborough Castle, and the other at Reculver), forms the Isle of Thanet. The Anton R. rises in Hampshire, and flows past Southampton into the English Channel opposite the Isle of Wight: to the West of it is the Avon, which has its source in Wiltshire, and flows past Salisbury into the English Channel. Still farther West is the Exe, the greatest river of Devonshire, which rises on the edge of Somersetshire, and runs past Exeter into the English Channel: beyond it is the Tamar, which forms the greater part of the boundary between the counties of Devon and Cornwall, running past Lannceston and Plymouth into the English Channel nearly opposite the Eddystone Light House.

17. The R. Ouse rises in the S. part of Northamptonshire close on the borders of Oxfordshire, flows past the cities of Buckingham, Bedford, Huntingdon, Ely, and Lynn Regis, at which last it enters the Wash. The R. Humber runs between the counties of York and Lincoln; it is rather an estuary than a river, being formed by the Trent and the Yorkshire Ouse. The Trent rises on the borders of Staffordshire and Salop not far from the city of Stafford, runs through the Southern part of Derbyshire, past Nottingham, and so along the Western limits of Lincolnshire into the Humber at Burton opposite the mouth of the Ouse. This Ouse must not be confounded with another river of the same name already described as running into the Wash; it rises in the Northern part of Yorkshire, and by means of its many tributaries renders this county one of the most fertile in the island. Amongst these tributaries the only one of any consequence which it receives on its left bank, is the Derwent: on its right bank it receives the Swale, the Yore, the Nid, the Wharfe, the Air and Calder, and the Don.

18. Beyond the Humber to the Northward are, the Tees, which rises in Cross Fell, and flowing Eastward forms the boundary between the counties of York and Durham, till it reaches the German Ocean near Stockton; the Wear, the great river of Durham; the Tyne, watering the Southern part of Northumberland, and entering the sea near Newcastle; the Alne; and the Tweed, which last forms in the lower part of its course the boundary between England and Scotland: all these rivers run into the North Sea or German Ocean.

19. Descending the Western coast of England we may notice the Eden, which runs past Appleby and Carlisle into the Solway Firth; the Lune or

river of Lancaster, which enters Morecambe Bay; the Ribble; the Mersey, which rises on the borders of Derbyshire and Yorkshire, and flows Westward between the counties of Lancaster and Chester into the Irish Sea near the famous port of Liverpool. The R. Dee rises near the town of Bala not very far from Snowdon, and after watering the Northern part of Wales, flows past Chester into the Irish Sea. Amongst the Welsh rivers may be mentioned the Conway, the Ystwith, and the Teify, which run into the Irish Sea; the Towy, Usk, and Wye, which flow into the Bristol Channel.

20. The lengths of the principal rivers of England and Wales may be seen in the following table:

PRINCIPAL RIVERS OF ENGLAND AND WALES.

	Miles.		Miles.		Miles.
Air - - - -	78	Kennet - - -	50	Teify - - -	63
Arun - - - -	42	Lea - - - -	53	Teme - - -	70
Avon (Glouc.)	70	Lune - - - -	46	Thame - - -	37
Avon (Hants) -	57	Mersey - - -	74	Thames - - -	204
Avon (Nor- } thamp.) - }	79	Nid - - - -	43	Torridge - - -	49
Avon (Warw.)	87	Ouse (Bucks)	155	Towy - - -	54
Blackwater } (Essex) - }	45	Ouse (Sussex)	22	Tweed - - -	88
Calder - - -	44	Ouse (York- } shire) - }	128	Tyne (North- } umb.) - }	77
Cam - - - -	39	Ribble - - -	58	Usk - - - -	68
Charwell - - -	46	Rother - - -	21	Waveney - - -	57
Coln (Bucks) -	40	Severn - - -	185	Wear - - -	64
Coln (Essex) -	33	Stour (Kent) -	48	Weever - - -	51
Conway - - -	31	Stour (Suffolk)	54	Welland - - -	66
Coquet - - -	41	Swale - - -	65	Wensom - - -	63
Dee - - - -	93	Taaf - - - -	36	Wey - - - -	42
Derwent - - -	74	Tamar - - -	54	Wharfe - - -	70
Don - - - -	59	Taw (Devon- } shire) - }	47	Witham - - -	79
Eden - - - -	70	Tawe (Gla- } morg.) - }	25	Wye - - - -	127
Exe - - - -	55	Tees - - - -	77	Yare - - - -	25
Froome - - -	35			Yeo - - - -	50
				Ystwith - - -	26

21. The principal rivers in the Eastern part of Scotland are the Forth, which runs into the Firth of Forth; the Tay, the longest river in the country, flowing past Perth into the Firth of Tay; the Esk; the Dee, which enters the German Ocean at Old Aberdeen; and the Spey. To the West of this last is the great estuary called the Murray Firth: it receives the waters of the great Loch Ness, which is more than 130 fathoms deep in several places.

22. The British Government has connected Loch Ness with the more southern Loch Lochy by means of a magnificent canal called the Caledonian Canal, by

which noble undertaking the necessity of the tedious and dangerous navigation round the Northern part of Scotland has been removed. The Caledonian Canal enters the Atlantic Ocean at Loch Linnhe, which runs up into Argyllshire. Below it is the Clyde, a beautiful river which runs past Lanark, Glasgow, and Renfrew, into the Firth of Clyde; it is noted for its falls, the scenery round which is singularly romantic. Farther South are, the R. Ayr, which runs past the town of Ayr into the Firth of Clyde, the Dee, and the Nith: the two last discharge their waters into the Solway Firth.

23. Scotland is likewise famous for the number of its lochs (or lakes), which have been long celebrated for the grand and picturesque scenery with which their shores are embellished; the chief of these are Loch Lomond, Loch Awe, Loch Tay, Loch Ness, Loch Lochy, Loch Shin, Loch Naver, and Loch Leven. The last is in the shire of Kinross, and is chiefly remarkable from Queen Mary having been confined by the confederate Lords, A. D. 1567, in a castle on one of its islands, after she had been taken captive at the battle of Carberry Hill.

24. The lengths of the principal rivers of Scotland may be seen in the following table:

PRINCIPAL RIVERS OF SCOTLAND.

	Miles.		Miles.		Miles.
Anan - - -	44	Doveran - -	51	Nith - - -	59
Ayr - - -	38	Earn - - -	46	Oikel - - -	33
Carron (Ross)	18	Esk (Dumfries)	44	Spey - - -	90
Clyde - - -	83	Esk, S. (Forfar)	45	Stincher - -	35
Dee (Aberdeen)	82	Findhorn - -	62	Tay - - -	102
Dee (Dumfries)	49	Leith - - -	20	Thurso - -	27
Don - - -	68	Nairn - - -	35	Tiviot - - -	38
Don - - -	29	Naver - - -	35	Ythan - - -	35

25. The noblest river of Ireland is the Shannon, which rises in the N. part of the island near Lough Allen, and flowing with a S. W. course of 192 miles, past Meelick and Limerick, enters the Atlantic between Clare and Limerick. In its course it runs through two considerable lakes, called Lough Ree and Lough Derg, and receives, amongst other tributaries, the Inny, the Suck, the Brusna, the Maig, and Askeaton.

26. There are several rivers in Ireland called the Blackwater, the most noted of which runs through the county of Cork, and enters the sea at Youghal Bay: the Lee is a very inconsiderable river, and only remarkable from its running through the city of Cork. The Barrow R. is in the S. E. part of the island; it rises in Queen's County, not far from the sources of the Boyne and the Liffey, and after having been joined by the waters of the Nore and other streams, falls into Waterford Bay: to the East of it is the R. Ovoca.

27. The Liffey rises in the N. part of the county of Wicklow, and after a tortuous course of 65 miles enters the sea at Dublin. A little to the N. of it is the R. Boyne, which runs from its source in the county of Kildare, with a N. E. course past Kells and Drogheda into the Irish Sea: it is celebrated for the battle fought on its banks, A. D. 1690, between William the 3d. and James the 2d, when the latter monarch, having been beaten, was obliged to take refuge on the continent. The Ban, in the N. E. corner of the island, and flows from its source in the Mourne M^t., through L. Neagh into the sea near Coleraine; it is famous for its salmon-fishery. The Derg rises out of a lough of the same name in the county of Donegal, and runs generally in a N. E. direction to Londonderry, a little below which it enters the sea at Lough Foyle.

28. The length of the principal rivers in Ireland may be seen in the following table:

PRINCIPAL RIVERS OF IRELAND.

	Miles.		Miles.		Miles.
Arrow - - -	23	Blackwater	41	Main - - -	39
Askeaton - -	34	(Tyrone)		May - - -	49
Ballinderry -	26	Boyne - - -	67	Munree - -	25
Ban - - - -	96	Brusna - - -	28	Nore - - -	67
Bandon - - -	38	Derg - - - -	56	Ovoca - - -	33
Barrow - - -	100	Feale - - - -	39	Roe - - - -	25
Blackwater } (Cork) }	97	Inny - - - -	47	Shannon -	195
Blackwater } (Meath) }	41	Lee - - - -	49	Slaney - -	62
		Liffey - - -	65	Suck - - -	64
		Maig - - - -	37	Suire - - -	102

29. Ireland contains a number of lakes or (loughs), some of which are both large and magnificent. The greatest of them is Lough Neagh, in the N. E. corner of the island, remarkable for the petrifying qualities of its

waters ; it is traversed by the R. Ban, and partly forms the boundary of five counties, viz. Antrim, Londonderry, Tyrone, Armagh, and Down. The next largest is Lough Earne, which communicates with Donegal Bay on the N. W. coast ; it is studded with a number of beautiful islands, and is divided into two parts near the town of Enniskillen, which stands on its Western shore. Besides these we may notice Lough Corrib in the province of Connaught, which discharges its waters into Galway Bay at the town of Galway ; Lough Ree and Lough Derg, which have been already noticed as traversed by the Shannon. But the Lake of Killarney, though of less extent than any of the foregoing, surpasses them all in beauty and grandeur of scenery ; it is situated in the Southern part of Ireland in the county of Kerry, at the foot of Macgillicuddy's Reeks, the highest mountain in the island.

30. The Bogs of Ireland form a very remarkable feature in the country ; they are of various descriptions, and are in some places very extensive ; in a general way they may be included within two lines, drawn from Wicklow and Howth Heads on the East to Galway and Sligo on the West. The chief of them is called the Bog of Allen, but there are many others : in some of these the water is concealed in a dangerous manner by a surface of grass ; some consist of water and mire ; others are shallow lakes partially covered with tufts of rushes ; and many consist of peat-moor used for fuel.

31. **PRINCIPAL GULFS AND BAYS.** The whole coast of Great Britain is indented by a number of estuaries and bays of greater or less magnitude. On the E. coast are the Mouth of the Thames, and The Wash, already noticed ; Bridlington Bay on the coast of Yorkshire, and the Mouth of the R. Tees, separating the last-mentioned county from Durham. In Scotland, near Edinburgh, are the Firths of Forth and Tay ; and farther North, near Inverness, are the Murray and Dornoch Firths.

32. Descending the Western coast we find Loch Broom, Loch Fine, and the Firth of Clyde ; on the coast of Wigtown, are Loch Ryan, Luce Bay, and Wigtown Bay. Solway Firth separates England and Scotland, and below it in the Northern part of Lancashire is Morecambe Bay. Cardigan Bay is on the Western coast of Wales, and Caermarthen and Swansea Bays on its Southern coast, all three being so named from the respective county-towns which stand upon them. The Bristol Channel, between the Southern shores of Wales and the coasts of Gloucestershire, Somersetshire, and Devonshire, has been already noticed : to the S. W. of it, on the N. coast of Devon is Bideford Bay. The chief bays in the English Channel are, Plymouth Sound between Cornwall and Devon, and Tor Bay on the shores of the latter county.

33. On the Eastern coast of Ireland are, Belfast Lough, Dundrum Bay, Dundalk Bay, Dublin Bay, and Wexford Harbour. On the Southern coast are Waterford Harbour and Cork Harbour. On the Western coast are Bantry Bay, Kenmare Bay, Dingle Bay, Galway Bay, and Clew Bay. On the Northern coast are Donegal Bay, Lough Swilly, and Lough Foyle.

34. STRAITS. The principal straits of the British Islands are, the St. of Dover, between Dover in Kent and Calais in France, which connects the North Sea with the English Channel: St. George's Channel, which separates Great Britain from Ireland: the Minch, which divides the Hebrides or Western Islands from Scotland: and the Pentland Firth, which intervenes between Scotland and the Orkney Isles.

35. THE PRINCIPAL CAPES of G^t. Britain are, on the N. coast C. Wrath; Dunnet Head, the Northernmost point of the island; and Duncansby Head. On the E. coast are Kinnaird's Head, the N. E. cape of Aberdeenshire; Spurn Head, the S. E. termination of Yorkshire; and the N. Foreland, which is the last point of Kent towards the N. East. At the Lizard Point Great Britain reaches farthest to the South, and near it is the Land's End, distinguished as the Westernmost point of England, though not of G^t. Britain: both capes are in Cornwall. On the W. coast are, Hartland Point, on the shores of Devonshire; St. David's Head, the W. extremity of Wales; Braichy Pull H^d., in Caernarvonshire; the Mull of Galloway in Wigtown; and the Mull of Cantire in Argyllshire.

36. The chief capes of Ireland are, Bloodyfarland Pt. and Malin Head, both in Donegal; Fair Head, in Antrim; Killard Pt., in Downshire; Carnsore Pt., in Wexford, and Mizen Head, in Cork: C. Clear is the Southernmost point, and is the extremity of a small island lying off the town of Baltimore on the coast of Cork.

37. RELIGION. The established form of religion in England and Wales, as well as in Ireland, is Episcopacy; but the Presbyterians and other numerous sects, comprehended in the general appellation of nonconformists, as well as the Roman Catholics, enjoy the sweets of religious

liberty under the influence of a legal toleration. The Church of England is that branch of the reformed church, which was established in England after the separation from the Romish Church, which took place in the reign of Henry VIII., who renounced the Pope's supremacy, the English having been the first people to throw off the yoke of Rome. The Church of England is commonly called a Lutheran church, from its having been modelled, to a very considerable extent, by our great reformers, on the doctrines of Martin Luther, so far as they are in conformity with the authority of the Holy Scriptures: but it is as different from the Lutheran churches established on the continent, as it is superior to them in the purity, dignity, and decency, both of its doctrines and ceremonies.

38. The Church of England is under the government of two Archbishops and twenty-four Bishops, of whom twenty-one are suffragans of Canterbury, and three of York. All of them are Lords of Parliament. The Archbishop of Canterbury is styled the Primate and Metropolitan of all England: he is the first Peer of the realm, and takes precedence not only of dukes, but likewise of the great officers of state and of all others except the Royal Family. The Archbishop of York is styled Primate and Metropolitan of England: he takes precedence of all dukes not of the Royal Family, and of all officers of state except the Lord High Chancellor. The Bishop of London has the precedence of all Bishops, the Bishop of Durham is the second, and the Bishop of Winchester the third, in rank.

39. The names of the several Bishoprics are,

Provincia Cantuariensis :	Asaph, St.	Provincia Cantuariensis :	Exeter.	Prov. Can- tuariensis :	Rochester.
	Bangor.		Gloucester.		Salisbury.
	Bath and Wells.		Hereford.		Winchester.
	Bristol.		Llandaff.		Worcester.
	Canterbury.		Lincoln.	Prov. Ebo- racensis :	Carlisle.
	Chichester.		London.		Chester.
	Coventry and Lichfield.		Norwich.		Durham.
	David's, St.		Oxford.		York.
	Ely.		Peterborough.		

The Bishop of Sodor and Man belongs to the Province of York, but has no vote in the House of Peers.

40. The Dean and Prebendaries belonging to every Cathedral assist the Bishop in ecclesiastical affairs. The office of Archdeacon, of whom there are 61 in England, is to inspect the moveables of churches, to reform slight abuses, and to induct into benefices. The other orders of the clergy are, the Rector, Vicar, Deacon, and Curate, each of whom enjoys some peculiar privilege. The number of Parishes and Parochial Chapelries in England and Wales, as ascertained in 1821, amounted to 10,693.

41. The Presbyterian Church government established in Scotland, is founded on a parity of ecclesiastical au-

thority amongst all its presbyters or pastors, and modelled after the Calvinistic plan in Geneva, which Knox, the reformer (who was the disciple of Calvin), recommended to his countrymen. This form of government excludes pre-eminence of order, all ministers being held equal in rank and power. The ministers of an indefinite number of contiguous parishes, with one ruling elder, constitute what is called a Presbytery, which has cognizance of all ecclesiastical matters within its bounds. Three or more adjacent Presbyteries form a Synod, of which there are reckoned 15; most of these meet twice a year, and they have power over presbyteries, but their decisions are reversible by the General Assembly, which is the highest Ecclesiastical Court. This court consists of commissioners, who are chosen annually from presbyteries, royal boroughs, and universities, in the following proportion; viz. 200 ministers, and 89 elders, representing presbyteries, 67 elders, representing royal boroughs, and five ministers, or elders, from universities.

42. Calvinism derived its appellation from John Calvin, whose real name was Chauvin, and who was born A. D. 1509, at Noyon, in Picardy. He obtained, at an early age, a benefice in the cathedral church of his native place, but, having joined the other Reformers in rescuing the Christian Church from the errors and superstitions of Popery, he was obliged to fly from his country during the persecution of the Protestants, and, after having visited many other places, settled at last in Geneva. Here he promulgated his own opinions concerning doctrine and church government, and died A. D. 1564. The distinguishing tenets of Calvinism are, belief in Predestination, Election, Reprobation, and Irresistible Grace, together with the total rejection of Episcopacy. The Calvinists, in their progress, unable to agree amongst themselves, and dissenting from each other as much as from the Church of England, have divided into various branches or lesser sects: their doctrine subsists in its greatest originality in Geneva, Scotland, and Holland, but it is likewise professed in many other countries. The Calvinists of France are called Hugonots or Huguenots.

43. Though the established religion of Ireland is that of the Church of England, yet a very great proportion of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics. There are four archbishoprics in the Church of Ireland, viz. Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam. Under the Archbishop of Armagh (who is Primate and Metropolitan of all Ireland) are the Bishops of Meath, Ardagh, Kilmore, Clogher, Raphoe, Down & Connor, and Dromore. The Archbishop of Dublin is Primate of Ireland, and has jurisdiction over the Bishops of Ferns & Leighlin, Ossory, and Kildare. Under the Archbishop of Cashel (who is Bishop of Emly) are the Bishops of Waterford & Lismore, Cork & Ross, Cloyne, Limerick & Ardferit & Aghadoo, and Killaloe & Kilfenora. Under the Archbishop of Tuam are the Bishops of Clonfert & Killmacduagh, Elphin, Killalla, and Acherry. These several

offices have their Deans and other dignitaries, Meath excepted, the Bishop of which has precedence of all the others.

44. GOVERNMENT. The government of Great Britain is a limited or mixed monarchy, being a combination of a monarchical and popular government. The executive power is vested in the king; the legislative is shared by him and the people, or their representatives in Parliament. The King's power, though limited, is very great. He convenes, adjourns, and dissolves the Parliament. He can withhold his assent from any bill, and prevent its passing into a law. He nominates his ministers, as well as the great officers of church and state. He is the fountain of honour, and confers dignities and titles. He pardons criminals, and has the prerogative of declaring war, making peace, and forming treaties and alliances. He is the supreme commander of the army and navy, and the temporal head of the Church. His person is inviolable, and in the eye of the law he can do no wrong. The crown is hereditary, and females are capable of succession; but the Sovereign must profess the Protestant religion.

45. The Parliament, to whom the legislative power belongs, consists of the King, the Peers, and the Commons; being divided into two assemblies, called The House of Lords and The House of Commons. The former is composed of the lords spiritual and temporal, *i. e.* the archbishops and bishops with the hereditary nobility. The number of English peers is indefinite, and may be increased at pleasure by the Crown; 16 peers represent the Scotch, and 32 the Irish nobility. The president in the House of Peers is generally the Lord Chancellor. The House of Commons is composed of representatives from the counties, cities, and boroughs of the Empire, in all 658: viz. 500 for England and Wales, 53 for Scotland, and 105 for Ireland. The elections for counties are made by freeholders, who have a certain valued rent; and for cities and boroughs, according to their charters and customs. A president, called The Speaker, is chosen by the members at the first meeting of parliament. The Commons have power to impeach the greatest Peer; but their chief privileges are, levying money, and imposing taxes for the public service.

46. The power of Parliament is absolute and unlimited, being under no control. It can regulate the succession to the Crown, alter the established religion, and change the constitution of the Empire. A bill may originate in either House, except bills relating to taxation, which must proceed from the House of Commons: before a bill is passed into a law, or Act of Parliament, it must be agreed to by a majority of both houses, and receive the Royal assent either in person or by commission. Appeals from the decision of the supreme courts of the Empire may be taken to the House of Peers. Every Peer may vote by proxy in the senate. The duration of a Parlia-

ment is limited to seven years; but a dissolution generally takes place before the expiration of that term, when a new election is made.

47. The form of government in Scotland has been the same with that of England since the Union of the two kingdoms A. D. 1603.

48. When Ireland became a portion of the British Empire in the year 1690, its government was vested in a house of Peers and a house of Commons, the King being represented by a Viceroy or Lord-lieutenant: but no act of importance was considered valid, until it received the sanction of the King and Council of Great Britain. Since the Union of the two kingdoms, A. D. 1801, the form of government has, of course, been one and the same.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

49. The shores of England and Wales are washed on the E. by the German Ocean or North Sea, on the S. by the English Channel, on the W. by St. George's Channel and the Irish Sea: to the North, England confines with Scotland, from which it is separated by an imaginary line extending from the Solway Firth, over the Cheviot Hills, and along the R. Tweed. England, together with Wales and the I. of Man, contains 43,990 square miles: the population of the three collectively, as ascertained in 1831, amounted to 13,940,700 souls. Its greatest length, from the Land's End to Berwick-on-Tweed, is 370 miles: and its greatest breadth, from Lowes-toft (near Yarmouth) to St. David's Head, is 260 miles.

50. England is divided into the Kingdom of England, and the Principality of Wales. England comprehends 40 counties, which unitedly return 144 Members of Parliament, the Cities, Boroughs, and Universities electing 327 more. These Counties are portioned out into six Circuits, so called from the journey or progress the Judges take through them, twice every year, to hold courts and administer justice. Middlesex and Cheshire are, however, not included in these circuits, the former being the seat of the supreme courts of justice, and the latter, what is called a *county-palatine*, appointing its own judges. *These circuits are, 1. The Home Circuit. 2. The West-*

Circuit. 3. The Norfolk Circuit. 4. The Oxford Circuit. 5. The Midland Circuit. 6. The Northern Circuit. Wales is divided into four circuits, viz. 1. The North-East Circuit. 2. The North-West Circuit. 3. The Carmarthen Circuit. 4. The Brecon Circuit. These circuits contain 12 Counties, which unitedly return 15 representatives to Parliament, the cities and boroughs sending 14 more.

The several counties which compose the English circuits are the following:

	<u>Western.</u>	<u>Norfolk.</u>	<u>Oxford.</u>	<u>Midland.</u>	<u>Northern.</u>
ord.	Southamp-	Bucks.	Berks.	Northamp-	York.
t.	ton.	Bedford.	Oxford.	ton.	Durham.
x.	Wilts.	Hunting-	Gloucester.	Rutland.	Northumber-
y.	Dorset.	don.	Monmouth.	Lincoln.	land.
	Somerset.	Cambridge.	Hereford.	Nottingham.	Cumberland.
	Devon.	Norfolk.	Salop.	Derby.	Westmor-
	Cornwall.	Suffolk.	Stafford.	Leicester.	land.
			Worcester.	Warwick.	Lancaster.

Those which compose the Welsh Circuits are:

North-East.	North-West.	Caermarthen.	Brecon.
	Merioneth.	Cardigan.	Glamorgan.
	Caernarvon.	Pembroke.	Brecon.
Anglesey.		Caermarthen.	Radnor.

The square miles, population (as ascertained in 1831), with the cities and towns of each county of England and Wales, may be seen in the following table:

Counties.	Square Miles.	Population in 1831.	Chief Cities, &c.
Bedford	205	48,325	Beaumaris, Holyhead.
Berkshire	350	95,383	Bedford, Woburn, Dunstable.
Buckingham	571	145,289	Reading, Windsor, Wallingford.
Brecon	569	47,763	Brecon, Hay, Buallt.
Birmingham	559	146,529	Buckingham, Aylesbury.
Caermarthen	735	100,655	Caermarthen.
Caernarvon	411	65,753	Caernarvon, Bangor, Conway.
Cambridge	648	143,955	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket.
Cardigan	510	64,780	Cardigan, Aberystwith.
Chester	794	334,410	Chester, Macclesfield, Nantwich.
Cheshire	1,002	302,440	Launceston, Falmouth.
Derby	1,114	169,681	Carlisle, Whitehaven, Penrith.
Derbyshire	477	83,167	Denbigh, Wrexham, Ruthin.
Derby	774	237,170	Derby, Chesterfield, Bakewell.
Devon	1,945	494,168	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstaple.
Dorset	760	159,252	Dorchester, Poole, Shaftesbury.

(continued)

Counties.	Square Miles.	Population in 1831.	Chief Cities, &c.
Durham - -	894	253,827	Durham, Sunderland, Stockton.
Essex - -	1,155	317,233	Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich.
Flint - -	184	60,012	Holywell, St. Asaph, Flint.
Glamorgan - -	597	126,612	Cardiff, Swansea, Llandaff.
Gloucester - -	947	386,904	Gloucester, Bristol, Cheltenham.
Hereford - -	649	110,976	Hereford, Leominster.
Hertford - -	498	143,341	Hertford, St. Albans.
Huntingdon - -	279	53,149	Huntingdon, St. Ives.
Kent - -	1,160	479,155	Canterbury, Maidstone, Chatham.
Lancaster - -	1,381	1,336,854	Lancaster, Manchester, Liverpool.
Leicester - -	607	197,003	Leicester, Loughborough.
Lincoln - -	2,073	317,244	Lincoln, Boston, Stamford.
Man, I. of - -	170	46,120	Douglas, Ramsey.
Merioneth - -	500	35,609	Dolgelly, Bala.
Middlesex - -	213	1,358,541	London, Westminster, Brentford.
Monmouth - -	376	98,130	Monmouth, Chepstow, Abergavenny.
Montgomery - -	633	66,485	Montgomery, Pool.
Norfolk - -	1,578	390,054	Norwich, Lynn, Yarmouth.
Northampton - -	766	179,276	Northampton, Peterborough.
Northumberland - -	1,411	222,912	Newcastle, Berwick, Tynemouth.
Nottingham - -	631	225,320	Nottingham, Newark, Southwell.
Oxford - -	567	151,726	Oxford, Woodstock, Witney.
Pembroke - -	460	81,424	Pembroke, St. David's, Haverfordwest.
Radnor - -	321	24,651	Radnor.
Rutland - -	112	19,385	Oakham, Uppingham.
Salop or Shropshire - -	1,010	222,503	Shrewsbury, Wenlock, Ludlow.
Somerset - -	1,239	403,908	Wells, Bath, Taunton.
Southampton or Hampshire. - -	1,228	314,313	Southampton, Portsmouth, Winchester.
Stafford - -	866	410,485	Stafford, Wolverhampton, Lichfield.
Suffolk - -	1,140	296,304	Ipswich, Bury St. Edmunds.
Surrey - -	572	486,326	Southwark, Guildford, Kingston.
Sussex - -	1,103	272,328	Chichester, Hastings, Brighton.
Warwick - -	680	336,988	Warwick, Birmingham, Coventry.
Westmorland - -	575	55,041	Appleby, Kendal.
Wilts - -	1,040	239,181	Salisbury, Devizes, Marlborough.
Worcester - -	549	211,356	Worcester, Dudley, Kidderminster.
York - -	4,402	1,371,296	York, Leeds, Kingston, Sheffield.
Army, Navy, &c. - -	-	277,017	
Totals - -	43,990	14,217,711	

54. London, the metropolis of the British Empire, the most powerful, most wealthy, most extensive, and most

populous city in the world, is seated in a fertile and salubrious plain or valley, on the banks of the R. Thames, which divides it into two parts, and passes through it from W. to E. in its progress to the sea. London may be regarded as the focus of Great Britain; for within its jurisdiction are concentrated the royal, legislative, juridical, civil, scientific, literary, and commercial concerns of the whole Empire. Considered as an aggregate, it comprises the City of London and its liberties, the city and liberties of Westminster, the boroughs of Marylebone, Finsbury, the Tower Hamlets, Southwark, and Lambeth, and upwards of 30 villages in Middlesex and Surrey. The greater portion is built in Middlesex, on the N. bank of the Thames; whilst Southwark with Lambeth and several connecting villages, extend along the S. shore of the river, in Surrey. The population of all the parishes whose churches are situate within eight miles rectilinear around St. Paul's Cathedral, amounted, in 1831, to 1,776,556 souls, the parish of Woolwich not included.

55. There are only two Universities in England, viz. Oxford and Cambridge; but there are many Royal Foundations and Public Schools for the instruction of youth, where some of the first men of the kingdom, and of the whole world, have received the elements of science and of the polite arts.

56. The principal ports of England, are Deptford on the Thames; Chatham and Sheerness, at the mouth of the Medway; Dover, Portsmouth, Plymouth, and Falmouth, on the S. coast; Bristol, at the mouth of the Severn; Milford Haven at the S. W. extremity of Wales; Holyhead, off the I. of Anglesey; Liverpool, at the mouth of the Mersey; Shields, at the mouth of the Tyne, on the E. coast of the kingdom; Stockton, at the mouth of the Tees; Kingston-upon-Hull, on the R. Humber; Lynn Regis, at the mouth of the R. Ouse; and Harwich, at the E. extremity of Essex.

57. The English manufactures, with a very few exceptions, are superior to those of all other countries: to enumerate them is unnecessary, for there is scarcely one in Europe that is not successfully prosecuted in England. Every art to abridge labour, and every contrivance of mechanism for the convenience of man, are here brought to a great degree of perfection. The commerce of England extends to every country on the face of the earth, and there is hardly a corner of the habitable globe, which has not been visited by her enterprising sons. The greatest manufactories are in London, Manchester, Lancaster, Sheffield, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Bradford, Northampton, Nottingham, Carlisle, Birmingham, Coventry, Worcester, Stafford, and Norwich.

58. The population of the chief cities, towns, and parishes of England and Wales (as returned in 1831) may be seen in the following table:

Albans, St. -	4,772	Doncaster -	11,572	Northampton -	15,351
Appleby -	2,723	Dorchester -	3,033	Norwich -	61,116
Asaph, St. -	3,144	Douglas -	6,954	Nottingham -	50,680
Aylesbury -	4,907	Dover -	11,924	Oakham -	2,440
Bath -	38,063	Dudley -	23,043	Oxford -	20,434
Beaumaris -	2,946	Durham -	10,125	Pembroke -	6,511
Bedford -	6,959	Ely -	6,189	Peterborough -	5,553
Berwick upon		Exeter -	28,201	Plymouth and	
Tweed -	8,920	Falmouth -	7,284	suburbs -	75,534
Birmingham -	142,251	Gloucester -	11,933	Pool (Welsh) -	5,040
Blackburn -	59,791	Guilford -	3,813	Poole -	6,459
Bolton -	63,034	Halifax -	109,899	Portsmouth &	
Boston -	11,240	Harwich -	4,297	Portsea -	63,026
Brecon -	5,026	Hereford -	10,280	Preston -	24,575
Brighton -	40,634	Hertford -	5,247	Radnor -	2,461
Bristol -	103,886	Holyhead -	4,282	Reading -	15,595
Buckingham -	3,610	Holywell -	8,969	Salisbury -	9,876
Bury St. Ed-		Huddersfield -	31,041	Sheffield -	91,692
munds -	11,436	Huntingdon -	3,267	Shrewsbury -	21,227
Caermarthen -	9,995	Ipswich -	20,454	Southampton -	19,324
Caernarvon -	7,642	Kidderminster -	20,865	Stafford -	6,998
Cambridge -	20,917	Kingston upon		Sunderland -	17,060
Canterbury -	14,463	Hull -	49,461	Swansea -	14,931
Cardiff -	6,187	Kirkby Kendal -	17,427	Taunton -	11,139
Cardigan -	2,795	Lancaster -	22,294	Tynemouth -	24,778
Carlisle -	20,006	Launceston -	2,231	Wakefield -	24,538
Chatham and		Leeds -	123,393	Warwick -	9,109
Rochester -	27,321	Leicester -	39,306	Wells -	6,649
Chelmsford -	5,435	Lichfield -	6,499	Wenlock -	2,424
Cheltenham -	22,942	Lincoln -	11,892	Whitby -	11,725
Chester -	21,363	Liverpool -	189,244	Whitehaven -	11,393
Chichester -	8,270	London -	1,776,556	Winchester -	9,212
Colchester -	16,167	Lynn Regis -	13,370	Windsor -	7,103
Coventry -	27,070	Macclesfield -	23,129	Wigan -	44,486
Denbigh -	3,786	Maidstone -	15,387	Wolverham-	
Deptford and		Manchester -	237,832	ton -	48,080
Greenwich -	44,348	Merthyr Tidvil -	22,083	Woolwich -	17,661
Darby -	23,607	Monmouth -	4,916	Worcester -	18,610
Devizes -	4,562	Montgomery -	1,188	Yarmouth -	21,115
Dolgelly -	4,087	Newcastle -	57,937	York -	25,359

SCOTLAND.

59. Scotland, or North Britain, is bounded on the South by England, and on all other sides by the sea: the boundary between the two countries is formed on the East by the River Tweed, and an imaginary line extending from Coldstream S. W. to the Solway Firth. Scotland, together with its islands, contains 23,170 square miles, or one half less than England, and 1,130 less

than Ireland: its population in 1831, amounted to 2,365,807 souls. Its greatest length is from the Mull of Galway to Dunnet Head, and measures 245 miles; its average breadth may be taken at 90 miles. The kingdom of Scotland was united to that of England A. D. 1603.

60. The Scotch are commonly divided into two classes, viz. the Highlanders and Lowlanders; the former occupying the Northern and mountainous provinces, the latter the Southern districts. These classes differ from each other in language, manners, and dress. The Highlanders use the Irish or Celtic tongue, sometimes called Erse and Gaelic, whilst in the low country the language is the ancient Scandinavian dialect, blended with the Anglo-Saxon. The Highlanders call themselves Gael or Cael and their country Albin, appellations evidently retaining traces of the old names Caledonia and Albion, by which Scotland and Great Britain were once known, and are still distinguished.

61. Scotland is divided into 33 shires, or counties, viz. 11 Northern, 11 Central, and 11 Southern. The Northern shires are, Orkney and Shetland Isles, Caithness, Sutherland, Cromarty, Ross, Inverness, Nairn, Elgin, Banff, Aberdeen, and Kincardine. The Central shires are, Forfar, Fife, Kinross, Clackmanan, Perth, Argyll, Bute, Renfrew, Dumbarton, Stirling, and Linlithgow. The Southern shires are, Edinburgh, Haddington, Berwick, Roxburgh, Selkirk, Peebles, Lanark, Ayr, Wigtown, Kirkcudbright, and Dumfries. These counties elect 30 representatives, and the towns and boroughs 23, in all 53 Members, to sit in the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain.

62. The square miles, population (as ascertained in 1831), and chief towns of each shire in Scotland, may be seen by the following table:

Shires.	Sq. Miles.	Population in 1831.	Chief Towns.
Aberdeen - - -	1,480	177,651	Aberdeen, Peterhead, Fraserburgh.
Argyll - - -	2,390	101,425	Inverary, Campbellton.
Ayr - - -	810	145,055	Ayr, Kilmarnock, Irvine.
Banff - - -	590	48,604	Banff, Cullen.
Berwick (or Merse) -	377	34,048	Greenlaw, Dunse, Lauderdale.
Bute - - -	175	14,151	Rothsay.
Caithness (or Wick) -	540	34,529	Wick, Thurso.
Clackmanan - - -	40	14,729	Clackmanan, Alloa.

(continued)

Shires.	Sq. Miles.	Population in 1831.	Chief Towns.
Dumbarton - - -	270	33,211	Dumbarton.
Dumfries - - -	192	73,770	Dumfries, Annan, Moffat.
Edinburgh (or Mid Lothian)	286	219,592	Edinburgh, Leith, Dalkeith.
Elgin (or Murray) -	452	34,231	Elgin, Forres.
Fife - - -	370	128,839	St. Andrews, Cupar, Dunfermline, Kirkcaldy.
Forfar (or Angus) -	728	139,606	Forfar, Dundee, Brechin, Montrose.
Haddington (or East Lothian)	235	36,145	Haddington, Dunbar.
Inverness - - -	3,370	94,797	Inverness.
Kincardine (or Mearns)	300	31,431	Bervie, Fetteresso, Kincardine.
Kinross - - -	62	9,072	Kinross.
Kirkcudbright - -	676	40,590	Kirkcudbright, New Galloway.
Lanark (or Clydesdale)	682	316,819	Lanark, Glasgow, Hamilton, Biggar.
Linlithgow (or West Lothian)	87	23,291	Linlithgow, Borrowstowness, Queensferry.
Nairn - - -	118	9,354	Nairn.
Orkney and Shetland	1,254	58,239	Kirkwall.—Lerwick.
Peebles (or Tweeddale) -	230	10,578	Peebles.
Perth - - -	1,865	142,894	Perth, Dunkeld, Abernethy, Culross.
Renfrew - - -	193	133,443	Renfrew, Paisley, Greenock, Port Glasgow.
Ross and Cromarty -	2,315	74,820	Tain, Dingwall.—Cromarty.
Roxburgh - - -	577	43,663	Jedburgh, Kelso, Roxburgh.
Selkirk - - -	205	6,833	Selkirk.
Stirling - - -	550	72,621	Stirling, Falkirk.
Sutherland - - -	1,485	25,518	Dornoch.
Wigtown - - -	366	36,258	Wigtown, Stranraer, Whitehorn.
Totals - - -	23,170	2,365,807	

63. Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, and before the union of the two kingdoms the seat of its king and parliament, is advantageously situated on three eminences, two miles from the Firth of Forth; its principal port is Leith. It consists of two parts, viz, the Old, and the New Town: the Old Town stands on an inclining ridge steep on each side, and extending longitudinally for the

space of a mile from the Castle Eastward to the palace of Holyrood-House ; the New Town likewise stands on elevated ground to the N. W. of the preceding, and was first founded in the year 1767. The population of Edinburgh amounted in 1831 to 162,403 souls. Prior to the reign of James the 2d the kings of Scotland resided at Perth, as the metropolis of the kingdom, and were crowned at the neighbouring abbey of Scone. But the ancient capital of the Picts was Abernethy, to the S. E. of Perth, at the mouth of the R. Earn.

64. There are four Universities in Scotland, viz. Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and St. Andrews.—Previous to the union, Scotland was in possession of few manufactures and of little trade ; but, since that period, it has shared in our national prosperity. Towards the middle of the last century, manufactures began to flourish, and trade increased in due proportion ; and now considerably more than one-third of its population is thus employed. The greatest manufactures are carried on at Glasgow, Paisley, Dumbarton, Edinburgh, Leith, Dunfermline, Dundee, Aberdeen, and Carron ; the last mentioned place is near Falkirk, and is one of the largest iron manufactories in Europe.

65. The Shire of Renfrew is remarkable from its having been long the paternal inheritance of the Stuart family, and as giving the title of Baron to the Prince of Wales. The Eastern part of Stirlingshire is remarkable for the many bloody battles which have been fought in it : Wallace defeated Cressingham near Stirling Bridge, A. D. 1297 ; Edward I., king of England, by his victory at Falkirk, in 1298, endangered the liberties and independence of Scotland ; the decisive battle of Bannockburn, in 1314, freed the nation from the English yoke ; and, at Sanchieburn, in 1488, James III. lost his life. Besides these, we may mention Langside Moor in Renfrewshire, where the army of Queen Mary was defeated by that of Murray, the Regent ; and Carberry-Hill in Mid-Lothian, where her forces were again beaten by those of the confederate lords, to whom the Queen yielded herself a prisoner, A. D. 1567. Not far from the last-mentioned place is Pinkie, in the neighbourhood of which the English defeated the Scotch in 1547.

66. Three miles below Hamilton, on the Clyde, is Bothwell Bridge, noted for the defeat of the covenanters by the royalists under the Duke of Monmouth in 1679. Preston-pans, where the highland rebels who fought for the Pretender defeated the King's army in 1745, is a small market-town in Haddingtonshire, only noted for its salt-works : Culloden Moor, about three miles E. of Inverness, is likewise memorable as the scene of the battle, A. D. 1746, which finished the rebellion of the preceding year, and for ever destroyed the hopes of the Stuart family. Killicrankie is a noted pass in Perthshire, about 15 miles N. of Dunkeld ; here was fought a battle in 1689 between the King's forces, commanded by General Mackay, and the Highland rebels, under Viscount Dundee, who was killed in the moment of victory. Duplin is also in Perthshire, and was the place where the English defeated the Scotch, A. D. 1332. Glen-co is a deep valley in Argyllshire, and is celebrated as the reputed birth-place of Ossian ; to the West of it, opposite the I. of Mull, is the bleak and mountainous Morven, the country of Fingal. On the Western side of the Isle of Mull is the beautiful little island of Staffa, so celebrated for its basaltic pillars, and for its natural caverns. The largest of these, called the Cave of Fingal, is exceedingly magnificent, being supported on each side by *ranges of natural columns* : its length from the

beach is 371 feet; it is 53 feet broad at the mouth, and the height of the arch at the entrance is 117 feet; the depth of water at the mouth is 18 feet.

67. The population of the chief towns in Scotland (as returned in 1831) may be seen in the following table:

	Souls.		Souls.		Souls.
Aberdeen	58,019	Edinburgh	162,403	Leith	25,855
Alloa	6,377	Elgin	6,130	Lerwick	3,194
Andrews, St.	5,621	Falkirk	12,743	Linlithgow	4,874
Annan	5,033	Fetteresso	5,109	Montrose	12,055
Ayr	7,606	Forfar	7,949	Nairn	3,266
Banff	3,711	Glasgow	202,426	Paisley	57,466
Bervie	1,137	Greenlaw	1,442	Peebles	2,750
Campbeltown	9,472	Greenock	27,571	Perth	20,016
Clackmanan	4,266	Haddington	5,883	Peterhead	5,112
Cromarty	2,901	Hamilton	9,513	Port-Glasgow	5,192
Cupar	6,473	Jedburgh	5,647	Renfrew	2,833
Dalkeith	5,586	Inverary	2,133	Rothsay	4,817
Dornoch	3,380	Inverness	14,324	Roxburgh	962
Dumbarton	3,623	Irvine	5,200	Selkirk	2,883
Dumfries	11,606	Kelso	4,939	Stirling	8,556
Dunbar	4,735	Kilmarnock	18,093	Stranraer	3,329
Dundee	45,355	Kinross	2,917	Tain	3,078
Dunfermline	17,068	Kirkcudbright	3,510	Thurso	4,679
Dunkeld	1,471	Kirkwall	3,721	Wick	9,850
Dunse	3,469	Lanark	7,672	Wigtown	2,337

IRELAND.

68. Ireland is separated from Great Britain on the East by St. George's Channel and the Irish Sea, being washed on the three other sides by the Atlantic Ocean. It contains 24,300 square miles, or nearly one-half less than England and Wales; its population in 1831 amounted to 7,631,194 souls. The power of the crown of England became unalterably established in Ireland by the victory obtained by William the 3d over James the 2d, A. D. 1690, on the banks of the R. Boyne: but the two countries were not completely united till the year 1801. The prevailing language of Ireland is the ancient Celtic idiom, called Erse, Irish, or Erinach, a dialect of which is likewise spoken in the Highlands of Scotland; in this idiom Ireland is called Erin.

69. Ireland is divided into four great provinces, viz. Leinster in the East, Munster in the South, Connaught in the West, and Ulster in the North: these are again subdivided into 32 counties. Leinster contains twelve counties, viz. Dublin, Louth, Meath, Westmeath, Longford, King's County, Queen's County, Kildare, Wick-

low, Wexford, Carlow, and Kilkenny. Munster contains six counties, viz. Cork, Kerry, Clare, Limerick, Tipperary, and Waterford. Connaught has five counties, viz. Galway, Mayo, Sligo, Leitrim, and Roscommon. Ulster is subdivided into nine counties, viz. Donegal, Londonderry, Antrim, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Cavan, Monaghan, Armagh, and Down. These counties elect 64 representatives, and the towns, boroughs, and university 41, in all 105 members, to sit in the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain.

76. The square miles, population (as estimated in 1831), and chief towns of each county in Ireland, may be seen in the following table

Counties.	Sq. Miles.	Population in 1831.	Chief Towns.
Antrim - -	798	203,280	Carrickfergus, Belfast, Antrim.
Armagh - -	368	221,450	Armagh, Charlemont.
Carlow - -	263	91,210	Carlow, Leighlin, Tullow.
Cavan - -	575	218,600	Cavan, Kilmore, Cootehill.
Clare - -	662	235,160	Ennis, Clare, Killaloe.
Cork - -	2,258	809,810	Cork, Kinsale, Mallow.
Donegal - -	1,304	280,360	Lifford, Donegal, Ballyshannon.
Down - -	734	370,080	Downpatrick, Newry, Dromore.
Dublin - -	294	388,820	Dublin, Swords, Newcastle.
Fermanagh - -	532	147,320	Enniskillen.
Galway - -	1,918	353,080	Galway, Tuam, Loughrea.
Kerry - -	1,332	230,050	Tralee, Ardfert, Killarney.
Kildare - -	468	114,130	Naas, Kildare, Athy.
Kilkenny - -	586	202,070	Kilkenny, Castle Comer.
King's County - -	499	148,450	Philipstown, Birr, Banagher.
Leitrim - -	483	132,300	Carrick on Shannon, Leitrim.
Limerick - -	789	251,630	Limerick, Rathkeal.
Londonderry - -	657	217,880	Londonderry, Coleraine.
Longford - -	283	120,830	Longford, Granard, Edgeworthstown.
Louth - -	248	113,400	Drogheda, Dundalk, Carlingford.
Mayo - -	1,765	342,800	Castlebar, Westport, Killala.
Meath - -	728	196,030	Trim, Navan, Kells.
Monaghan - -	384	200,270	Monaghan, Clones.
Queen's County - -	454	145,170	Maryborough, Portarlington.
Roscommon - -	686	256,670	Roscommon, Elphin, Tusk.
Sligo - -	548	155,810	Sligo.
Tipperary - -	1,215	396,480	Clonmell, Cashell, Tipperary.
Tyrone - -	983	292,600	Omagh, Strabane, Dungannon.
Waterford - -	535	152,570	Waterford, Lismore.
Westmeath - -	454	143,660	Mullingar, Athlone, Ballymore.
Wexford - -	705	189,950	Wexford, New Ross, Enniscorthy.
Wicklow - -	590	129,210	Wicklow, Arklow.
Total - -	24,300	7,631,190	

71. The city of Dublin (called in the native idiom Balacleg, or Bally-ath-Cliath), the metropolis of the kingdom of Ireland, is a large, well-built, flourishing, and commercial city, extending along both banks of the River Liffey. It is about $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles in length each way, and is situated at the bottom of a Bay of the same name, formed by Dalky Head on the South side, and Hoath Head on the North: the latter is a small, elevated, oval peninsula, and on its extreme point a light-house has been erected. On the Western side of the city is Phoenix Park, the residence of the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. Cork, the second city in the country, and the great mart of the Southern parts of the kingdom, is situate partly on the banks of the R. Lee, and partly on a marshy island in the river: it has many flourishing manufactures, and carries on a very considerable trade.

72. Ireland has but one university, viz. that of Trinity College, Dublin, founded by Queen Elizabeth. At Maynooth, in the Northern part of the County of Kildare, is the College of St. Patrick, instituted in 1795, for the education of the Irish Roman Catholic Clergy. Ireland distinguished itself at an early period by its industry and manufactures, particularly those of wool, hemp, and linen: it is, likewise, much famed for the richness and fertility of its soil. It has rapidly improved during the present century, especially in agriculture, and is rising, under the fostering care of the legislature, to such a high degree of prosperity, as essentially to contribute to the welfare and happiness of the United Kingdom. The principal manufactures of the country are carried on at Belfast, Coleraine, Limerick, Newry, Galway, Drogheda, Dublin, Cork, Waterford, Clonmell, and Carrick on Shannon.

73. The population of some of the chief towns in Ireland (as estimated in 1821) may be seen in the following table:

	Souls.		Souls.		Souls.
Antrim	2,200	Donegal	4,000	Longford	3,000
Armagh	8,000	Downpatrick	5,000	Maryborough	2,000
Belfast	19,000	Drogheda	18,100	Mullingar	2,000
Birr	5,500	Dublin	200,000	Monaghan	3,000
Carlow	7,000	Dungannon	4,000	Navan	4,000
Carrick	2,000	Enniskillen	3,500	Newry	11,500
Castlebar	5,000	Galway	27,800	Roscommon	2,000
Cavan	3,000	Kildare	3,000	Sligo	10,000
Clare	1,000	Kilkenny	23,000	Tralee	3,000
Clonmell	8,000	Kinsale	11,500	Waterford	26,800
Coleraine	6,000	Limerick	66,000	Wexford	9,000
Cork	100,500	Londonderry	20,000	Wicklow	2,000

74. The territories belonging to the British, in the different Quarters of the Globe, are numerous and extensive. In so general a work as this, it is impossible to go into any detail concerning them; but, nevertheless, a bare recapitulation of most of their names may not be unacceptable, as tending to show the greatness and power of our Empire, and its immense superiority, even in this respect, over every other nation that exists, or ever has existed, in the world. In Europe, we may mention the four islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark, off the coast of Normandy; the island of Heligoland, off the mouths of the Elbe and Weser; the Kingdom of Hanover, in the N. W. part of Germany; Gibraltar, at the S. extremity of Spain; Malta, Gozo, &c., in the centre of the Mediterranean Sea; and the Ionian Isles, to the West of Greece.

75. In Asia, by far the major part of India is under the dominion of the British; as well as Australia (or New Holland), Van Diemen's Land, Pulo Penang, Singapore, and several Islands in the Pacific Ocean. In Africa, we may notice the Cape of Good Hope, the settlements on the Gold Coast, Sierra Leone, Fernando Po, St. Helena, Mauritius, or the I. of France, Seychelles, &c. In America, are the Canadas, and our possessions in the Northern part of the Continent; Jamaica, the Bahamas, Barbadoes, Trinidad, and many other of the West-India Islands, Balleze, Guyana, &c. &c.

76. The superficial extent and estimated population of the British Empire may be seen in the following table:

Territories.	Sq. Miles.	Estimated Population.
Great Britain and Ireland, with the Scilly Islands - - - - -	91,500	24,218,000
Jersey, Guernsey, &c., Heligoland - - - - -	80	56,000
Hanover, Kingdom of - - - - -	11,600	1,435,000
Gibraltar, Malta, &c. - - - - -	130	118,000
The Ionian Isles - - - - -	870	227,000
British India - - - - -	959,200	123,000,000
Australia, Van Diemen's Land, Pulo Penang, Singapore, and Polynesia - - - - -	2,387,200	4,000,000
Cape of Good Hope - - - - -	94,400	150,000
(continued)		

Territories.	Sq. Miles.	Estimated Population.
Sierra Leone, Fernando Po, Settlements on the Gold Coast, &c. - - - - -	3,500	150,000
Canadas - - - - -	372,400	640,000
Remainder of British N. America - - -	2,404,400	1,860,000
Jamaica, Bahamas, Barbadoes, Trinidad, and other W. India I ^s . - - - - -	13,500	900,000
Ballezo, Guyana, &c. - - - - -	69,400	151,000
Totals - - -	6,408,080	156,000,000

CHAPTER V.

KINGDOM OF FRANCE.

1. THE Kingdom of France is bounded on the S. by the Mediterranean Sea and the Pyrenean Mountains, which last separate it from the Kingdom of Spain; on the W. by the Atlantic Ocean; on the N. by the English Channel, the Kingdom of Belgium, and the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg; on the E. by the German States, the Republic of Switzerland, and the continental dominions of the King of Sardinia. It includes, together with Corsica, 160,300 square miles; and in 1827 contained 31,851,500 inhabitants.

2. THE PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS of France are the Pyrenees, extending from the Mediterranean to the B. of Biscay; one of the highest peaks in them is M. Perdu, rising 11,272 feet above the level of the sea. The Cevennes take their rise near the Eastern extremity of the Pyrenees, traverse the provinces of Languedoc, Lionois, and Burgundy, and running parallel with the Southern course of the Rhone, divide, as it were, the waters of that river from the Loire and Garonne. The Puy de Dome, Mt. d'Or, and Plomb du Cantal, are high points in a chain of mountains which detaches itself from the Cevennes to the Westward, passing through

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the provinces of Auvergne, Limousin, and Poitou, and terminating near the mouth of the R. Loire.

3. The range of mountains called in different parts Vosges and Mt. des Faucilles, is a continuation of the Cevennes Northward, running from the province of Burgundy, through parts of Champagne, Lorraine, and Alsace, to Bingen near Maynz on the Rhine, crossing which it causes a little fall in that beautiful river.

4. Mt. Jura, the Western barrier of Switzerland, is a little to the W. of the L. of Geneva; it is a spur of the Vosges, and is connected with them by a mountain called Boetzberg. That part of the great chain of the Alps which separates France from Italy is called the Maritime Alps: two of the highest points in it are Mt. Viso and Mt. Genevre, but these are much less elevated than Mt. Blanc, which is farther N. in the same chain near the borders of Switzerland and Savoy.

5. Amongst THE PRINCIPAL RIVERS of France we may mention the Rhine, one of the noblest and most beautiful rivers of Europe; it rises in Mt. S. Gothard in Switzerland, and after traversing the L. of Constance, or Boden See as it is also named, flows with a Northerly course into the German Ocean, near Rotterdam in Holland: it is 737 miles long. The Moselle rises in the Mt. des Faucilles, in the Southern part of Lorraine, and runs N. into the Rhine at Coblentz: its length is 300 miles. The Meuse or Maas rises in the same mountain, and joins the Whaal, which is a branch of the Rhine, near its mouth: its length to the sea is 511 miles.

6. The Seine rises in the N. of Burgundy, and after a North Western course of 416 miles, flows into the English Channel. The Marne and Oise are its two greatest tributaries, and enter its right bank not far from Paris. The Loire, the largest river of France, rises in the Cevennes, in the Northern part of Languedoc, and runs first North and then West into the B. of Biscay; its length is 540 miles. The Garonne has its source in the Pyrenees, and enters the B. of Biscay after a North Western course of 330 miles.

7. The Rhone rises in Mt. S. Gothard, passes W. through the L. of Geneva, or Lemman as it is sometimes

called, and after being joined at Lyons by the Saone, flows with a Southerly course into the Mediterranean Sea; its length is 442 miles. L. Lemane is 1,125 feet above the level of the sea. The Rhone enters the sea by three mouths. The Western one is called Le Rhone Mort, and next it is the arm known as Le petit Rhone: the third, and largest mouth, is now the main arm of the whole river, and therefore preserves the appellation of the Rhone.

8. GULFS, CAPES, AND STRAITS. The only Gulfs of any consequence in France are, the Gulf of Lyons at the Mouths of the Rhone, off the shores of the provinces of Languedoc and Provence; and the Bay of Biscay between the Western coast of France and the North Eastern coast of Spain. The principal Capes are; C. Grisnez in Picardy, opposite Dover; C. de la Hague, the North Western point of Normandy, opposite Dorchester in England; C. St. Matthew, near Brest, the Westernmost point of France; and C. Sicier, near Toulon, where it reaches farthest to the South. The only great Strait is the St. of Dover, already mentioned as being 18 miles across: the French call it Le Pas de Calais, and the English Channel La Manche.

9. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The inhabitants of France are all Roman Catholics, with the exception of about $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions of Protestants, and about 65,000 Jews: all forms of religion, however, are tolerated. The government of France, since 1814, has been a limited monarchy, resembling in its forms that of Great Britain, but females are excluded from the throne.

10. The royal prerogative in France is nearly the same as in our own country, but there the king has the exclusive right of bringing bills before Parliament. The responsibility of public measures rests with the ministers. The Parliament is composed of a chamber of peers and a chamber of deputies. The chamber of peers consists of upwards of 200 members, whose dignity is not hereditary, but who possess privileges somewhat similar to those of the peerage in England, their number being unlimited, and the grant of titles being vested in the crown. No clerical dignitaries have seats in the legislature: a few cardinals, who are members, owe it altogether to their titles as temporal peers. Their discussions are not made public, as in the case of the chamber of deputies. The house of commons, or chamber of deputies, is elected by the people for a term of seven years; the number of representatives may, in some measure, be altered at the pleasure of the king, the smallest number allowed by the constitution being 256.

11. Before the revolution there were 23 universities in France; in that terrible convulsion education was totally suspended, but its establishments have since been reinstated in a different form. The lycées, now called royal colleges, are 36 in number, and are large provincial schools where the pupils receive instruction in the classics, mathematics, and rhetoric. The name of university is confined to the metropolis; but the provincial establishments, bearing the name of academies, are constituted like the universities of other countries, and are 25 in number, viz.

Aix.	Bourges.	Douay.	Montpellier.	Poitiers.
Amiens.	Caen.	Grenoble.	Nancy.	Rennes.
Angers.	Cahors.	Limoges.	Nismes.	Rouen.
Besançon.	Clermont.	Lyons.	Orleans.	Strasburg.
Bordeaux.	Dijon.	Metz.	Pau.	Toulouse.

The Protestants have two seminaries for studying divinity, one at Strasburg, and one at Montauban.

12. Before the revolution France was composed of 32 great provinces, varying much from each other both in their extent and the privileges which had been granted to them: it is now, including the Island of Corsica, divided into 86 departments, generally named after the rivers which run through them; they are similar to each other in size, and their chief town is generally in the centre.

13. The following table exhibits a view of the provinces and departments, together with their chief towns, and the population of the latter.

Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.	Population in 1827.
Flanders - -	The North - -	Lille - - -	69,900
Artois - - -	Pas de Calais - -	Arras - - -	22,200
Picardy - - -	Somme - - -	Amiens - - -	42,000
Normandy	Lower Seine - -	Rouen - - -	90,000
	Calvados - - -	Caen - - -	38,200
	La Manche - - -	St. Lô - - -	8,500
	Orne - - -	Alençon - - -	14,100
	Eure - - -	Evreux - - -	9,700
Isle of France	Oise - - -	Beauvais - - -	12,900
	Aisne - - -	Laon - - -	7,400
	Seine and Oise - -	Versailles - - -	29,800
	Seine - - -	Paris - - -	890,400
	Seine and Marne - -	Melun - - -	7,200
Champagne	Ardennes - - -	Mezières - - -	4,200
	Marne - - -	Chalons-sur-Marne - -	12,400
	Aube - - -	Troyes - - -	25,600
	Upper Marne - - -	Chaumont - - -	6,000

(continued)

Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.	Population in 1827.
Lorraine -	Meuse - - -	Bar le Duc - - -	12,500
	Moselle - - -	Metz - - -	45,300
	Meurte - - -	Nancy - - -	29,100
	Vosges - - -	Epinal - - -	8,000
Maine -	Mayenne - - -	Laval - - -	15,800
	Sarte - - -	Le Mans - - -	19,500
Anjou - - -	Maine and Loire	Angers - - -	30,000
Britany -	Ille and Vilaine	Rennes - - -	29,400
	Côtes du Nord	St. Brieux - - -	10,000
	Finisterre - - -	Quimper - - -	10,000
	Morbihan - - -	Vannes - - -	11,300
	Lower Loire - - -	Nantes - - -	71,700
Poitou - - -	Vendée - - -	Bourbon-Vendée - - -	3,100
	Two Sèvres - - -	Niort - - -	15,800
	Vienne - - -	Poitiers - - -	21,600
Aunis, Saintonge, and Angoumois	Lower Charente	La Rochelle - - -	11,100
	Charente - - -	Angoulême - - -	15,300
Orleanois -	Eure and Loir	Chartres - - -	13,700
	Loiret - - -	Orleans - - -	40,300
	Loire and Cher	Blois - - -	11,300
Touraine - - -	Indre and Loire	Tours - - -	21,000
Berry - - -	Cher - - -	Bourges - - -	19,500
	Indre - - -	Chateauroux - - -	11,000
Nivernois - - -	Nièvre - - -	Nevers - - -	15,800
Bourbonnois - - -	Allier - - -	Moulins - - -	14,500
La Marche - - -	Creuse - - -	Gueret - - -	3,400
Limousin -	Upper Vienne	Limoges - - -	25,600
	Corrèze - - -	Tulle - - -	8,500
Auvergne -	Puy de Dome	Clermont-Ferrand	30,000
	Cantal - - -	Aurillac - - -	9,600
Alsace - - -	Lower Rhine	Strasbourg - - -	49,700
	Upper Rhine	Colmar - - -	15,500
Franche Comté	Upper Saone	Vesoul - - -	5,300
	Doubs - - -	Besançon - - -	28,800
	Jura - - -	Lons le Saunier - - -	7,900
Burgundy -	Yonne - - -	Auxerre - - -	12,300
	Côte d'Or - - -	Dijon - - -	23,800
	Saone and Loire	Macon - - -	11,000
	Ain - - -	Bourg - - -	8,400
Lyonnois -	Rhone - - -	Lyons - - -	160,900
	Loire - - -	Montbrison - - -	5,200

Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.	Population in 1827.
Dauphiny	Isère - - -	Grenoble - -	22,100
	Drome - - -	Valence - -	10,300
	Upper Alps - - -	Gap - - -	7,000
Comtat Venaissin	Vaucluse - - -	Avignon - -	31,200
Provence -	Lower Alps - - -	Digne - - -	4,000
	Mouths of the Rhone	Marseilles - -	115,900
	Var - - -	Draguignan - -	8,900
Languedoc	Upper Loire - - -	Le Puy - - -	15,000
	Lozère - - -	Mende - - -	5,400
	Ardèche - - -	Privas - - -	4,200
	Gard - - -	Nismes - - -	39,100
	Herault - - -	Montpellier - -	35,800
	Aude - - -	Carcassonne - -	17,800
	Tarn - - -	Alby - - -	11,000
County of Foix	Upper Garonne - -	Toulouse - -	53,300
	Arrière - - -	Foix - - -	5,000
Roussillon -	Eastern Pyrenees	Perpignan - -	15,400
Guienne & Gascony -	Gironde - - -	Bordeaux - -	93,500
	Dordogne - - -	Perigueux - -	8,600
	Lot and Garonne -	Agen - - -	12,000
	Lot - - -	Cahors - - -	12,400
	Aveiron - - -	Rodez - - -	7,700
	Tarn and Garonne	Montauban - -	25,500
	Gers - - -	Auch - - -	10,800
	Landes - - -	Mont-de-Marsan -	3,100
Bearn - - -	Upper Pyrenees -	Tarbes - - -	8,700
	Lower Pyrenees -	Pau - - -	11,800
Corsica - - -	Corsica - - -	Ajaccio - - -	7,700

14. Paris, the metropolis of France, is built on both banks of the Seine and on three islands in the river: it is about 15 miles in circumference, nearly of a circular form, and is surrounded by a great wall which was erected in 1787. The Seine, which intersects the city nearly in the middle, has not half the width of the Thames; and though its banks are termed quays, it wants almost entirely the enlivening aspect of shipping. The estimated number of inhabitants in Paris, in 1827 amounted to 890,400, or to about half the population of London at the same period. Paris is the centre of government, the residence of the king and his court, of the two chambers, of the supreme courts of justice, and of the chief

officers of state: it is also the seat of an archbishop, and the focus of all the literature and amusements of the country. The king has likewise a splendid palace at Versailles, about 10 miles to the S. W. of Paris, and another residence at St. Cloud, about half that distance from the capital nearly in the same direction. There is, also, another royal palace at Fontainebleau, about 30 miles to the S. E. of Paris; it has given name to several treaties of peace which have been signed here.

13. To the N. of Paris, upon the banks of the Somme, stands Amiens, where a definitive treaty of peace was concluded, A. D. 1802, between Great Britain and France. To the N. W. of Amiens, about midway between it and Boulogne, are the two villages of Cressy and Agincourt, remarkable for the splendid victories gained there by the English over the French. The battle of Cressy, or Crecy as it is sometimes written, was fought A. D. 1346, between Edward the 3rd. of England and his gallant little army of less than 25,000 men, against Philip the 6th. of France and his mighty force of 120,000, out of whom only five knights and about 60 soldiers fled with him: the French were defeated with great slaughter, and left the King of Bohemia, 11 princes, 80 bannerets, 1,200 knights, 1,500 gentlemen, 4,000 men at arms, 1,200 horse, and 30,000 foot, dead on the field.

14. The battle of Agincourt, or Arincourt, was fought A. D. 1415: the English were commanded by King Henry the 5th, whose army had been reduced by sickness and accidents to 10,000 men; the French had collected together a force of 100,000, or, as some say, of 140,000 men, to intercept the march of the English from Harfleur towards Calais. But, notwithstanding the immense superiority of their numbers, they were gloriously beaten, and they left dead on the field the Constable d'Albert, 3 dukes, the archbishop of Sens, 1 marshal, 13 earls, 92 barons, 1,500 knights, and a far greater number of gentlemen, besides several thousands of common soldiers. The number of captives exceeded that of the whole English army, and many of them were persons of rank and fortune, who, encumbered with their heavy armour, could not make their escape.

15. The sea port towns of Boulogne and Calais lie opposite to Dover, and are the ordinary landing-places from the S. E. part of England. Calais is strong and tolerably well-built, and is remarkable from having been in the possession of the English for upwards of 200 years. About eight miles to the S. of it stands the little town of Guines, near which Henry the 8th. of England and Francis the 1st. of France had an interview in a plain, which from the display of magnificence made by the latter monarch to gain Henry over to his side, was named *le champ au drey d'Or*, or the field of the cloth of Gold. At the mouth of the Seine is the famous port called Havre de Grace, or sometimes only Le Havre; and to the E. of it, some distance up the river, stands the great commercial town Rouen. Cherbourg is an important harbour in the N. W. of Normandy, opposite the I. of Wight.

16. To the W. of Normandy, the N. of Britany, and opposite the county of Dorsetshire in England, lie the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, and Alderney, which have been already mentioned as belonging to the British. Bretonne, one of the finest harbours of France, is situated in the Westernmost part of the country, at the farthest extremity of Britany; it is rendered very in-

portant, not only by its situation, but by the fortifications with which it is defended, and the use which the French make of it for naval purposes. La Rochelle, on the B. of Biscay, is another valuable sea-port, opposite the I. de Ré and the I. d'Oleron: we may likewise notice Bordeaux, at the mouth of the Garonne, the population of which amounts to 95,000 souls, and Bayonne, at the mouth of the Adour, near the Spanish frontiers, as very important maritime towns.

19. To the E. of La Rochelle, in Poitou, is Poitiers, celebrated for the battle fought there A. D. 1356, between the English and French, in which Edward the Black Prince, with an army of only 12,000 men, defeated John, King of France, with a force of 50,000, and took him prisoner. Orleans is about midway between Poitou and Paris, and stands on the banks of the R. Loire; it is celebrated as having always given the title of Duke to a prince of the Blood Royal. Rheims is situated in the Northern part of Champagne on one of the tributaries of the R. Seine; it is remarkable as the place where the French kings are crowned. The city of Lyons, at the confluence of the Rhone and the Saone, ranks as the second city in France, and in manufactures the first; it is especially noted for its fabrics of silks and rich stuffs.

20. The two principal French ports on the Mediterranean are Marseilles and Toulon, both lying Eastward from the mouths of the Rhone. Marseilles, the more Western of the two, is a place of great commerce, and the chief outlet for all the natural and artificial productions of the South of France. Toulon, which lies 25 miles to the E. of it, has long been one of the chief stations of the French navy, being on the Mediterranean what Brest is on the Atlantic; its new, or military port, is one of the finest in Europe, and is said to be capable of containing 200 sail of the line.

21. The I. of Corsica is, properly speaking, an Italian island, though it has been annexed to the crown of France since the year 1769. It is remarkable as having given birth to the plebeian emperor of France, so long the scourge of Europe, whose flag was, by the unwearied perseverance of Britain, repeatedly levelled with the dust, and finally trodden under foot at the ever-memorable battle of Waterloo.

22. The foreign possessions of France are neither important nor numerous. In Asia, they consist of Chandernagore in Bengal, Pondicherry and Karical on the coast of Coromandel, and Mahé on the coast of Malabar. In Africa, of the I. of Gorée, I. St. Louis, a few factories at the mouth of the Senegal, and I. Bourbon, in the Indian Ocean. In America, they consist of the two small islands, St. Pierre and Miquelon, near Newfoundland; Martinique, Guadaloupe, Mariagalante, Deseada, the Saints, and the Northern part of St. Martin, in the West Indies; and the colony of Cayenne, in Guyana, on the mainland of South America.

CHAPTER VI.

KINGDOM OF BELGIUM.

1. THIS new kingdom is bounded on the S. by the kingdom of France and the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, on the E. by Rhine-Prussia, on the N. by the kingdom of Holland, and on the West by the North Sea. Subsequent to the year 1814 it formed the Southern part of the kingdom of the Netherlands, but it has lately been separated from Holland, and created a distinct kingdom. It contains 9,180 square miles, and its population in 1829 amounted to 3,776,168 souls. The names of Netherlands and the Low Countries, by which Belgium is often mentioned, have been derived from their relative situation with respect to High Germany, or as some say on account of much of its territory lying below the level of the sea.

2. The whole of Holland and Belgium was formerly divided into little principalities, after the manner of Germany; but at length, by conquests, treaties, and intermarriages, it fell under the dominion of the House of Burgundy. The male line in this family becoming extinct, Mary, the sole heiress, transferred her dominions to the House of Austria, A. D. 1477. Charles 5th, emperor of Germany, united the seventeen provinces into one state, and enacted that in future they should all be governed by the same sovereign. But the bigotry and tyranny of his son, Philip 2nd, to whom he bequeathed both the sovereignty of them and of Spain, caused the seven Dutch provinces to revolt, and to form the famous Union of Utrecht: after a violent struggle for liberty, they were declared a free and independent state, A. D. 1648, by the treaty of Munster. The other ten provinces continued subject to the Crown of Spain till the death of Charles 2nd, in the year 1700, when they were transferred to the German line of the Austrian family. From this time till the termination of the war in 1814, this unhappy country was the frequent scene of the most sanguinary hostilities; but at the end of that period all the provinces were erected into one independent state, and placed under the guardianship of one king. In the year 1830, however, fresh troubles broke out, which, after much confusion ended in Holland and Belgium being declared distinct kingdoms and governed by different sovereigns.

3. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. There are no mountains in Belgium. Its principal river is the Maas

has been already mentioned in the France; it enters Belgium to the S. of through the Eastern side of the kingdom, Liege, and Maastricht, and after having the Northern boundary, enters the North of the Scheldt, below Rotterdam: its chief Belgic rivers are the Sambre, the Ourthe, and the Dommel. The chief river is the Scheldt, or Escaut as it is called in France, which rises in France near Cambray, and flows through the Western provinces of the country of Belgium, Ghent, Antwerp, and Bergen-op-Zoom, and empties into the Sea by two mouths called the East and the West, the former being to the N. and the latter to the S. of the Island of Walcheren. The chief tributaries of the Scheldt are the Scarpe, the Lys, the Denbult, and the Dommel.

There are no lakes in Belgium, but there is an extensive lake called De Peel, in the North Eastern part of the kingdom. Its forests are numerous, and its meadows are extensive: amongst them may be mentioned the forest of Soign , situated to the S. of Brussels, in which was fought the famous battle of Waterloo. The portion of Belgium touching upon the coast of West Flanders, which extends from the French frontier towards Walcheren in Holland is 150 miles: in its central part is the har-

RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The religion of the people is Roman Catholic, but all forms and sects are tolerated. The government of the country is a limited monarchy, resembling in most things the government of Great Britain. Its Parliament is composed of two Houses, the members of the Upper House being appointed by the king, and those of the Lower House being elected every three years by the people. The country is divided into 9 provinces: 3 in the South, Belgium, Hainault, and Namur; 3 in the North, Flanders, South Brabant, and Liege; and 3 in the East, viz. Antwerp, Limburg, and North

6. The population and chief towns of these provinces may be seen in the following table :

Provinces.	Population in 1829.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1829.
North Brabant - -	375,120	Herzogenbosch or Bois-le-Duc - - -	14,300
Antwerp or Anvers -	307,648	Antwerp or Anvers -	64,000
Limburg - - -	325,000	Maastricht - -	19,600
Liege or Luttich -	340,000	Liege or Luttich -	48,700
South Brabant - -	479,050	Brussels - - -	82,000
East Flanders - -	678,000	Ghent or Gand - -	67,500
West Flanders - -	555,050	Bruges - - -	36,000
Henegouwen or Hainault	528,818	Mons - - -	20,700
Namur - - -	187,482	Namur - - -	16,600

7. The metropolis of the kingdom of the Netherlands is Brussels, situated near the banks of the little river Senne, which is a tributary of the Scheldt: it is the seat of government and the residence of the king, who has a palace near it at Laeken. It is one of the neatest and best built cities in Europe, but though possessed of many advantages, it is much inferior both in extent and population to its rival Amsterdam in Holland. About seven miles to the S. of Brussels, upon the edge of the Forest of Soigné, stands the little village of Waterloo, where the Duke of Wellington defeated Napoleon Bonaparte, A. D. 1815, and put an end to the war which had grown out of the French revolution, and which had convulsed all Europe for more than 20 years.

8. There are three well known universities in Belgium, viz. Louvain, Ghent, and Liege. But for the sake of those to whom distance and expense might render it inconvenient to attend these universities for the completion of their education, there are other great seminaries established, called Athenæa, where nearly the same instruction is given, but where no degrees can be conferred; the two chief ones are at Brussels and Breda. The language in general used throughout the Belgic provinces is the Flemish, which is a dialect of the Low Dutch. The inhabitants of Flanders are alone, properly speaking, called Flemings, but the name is not unfrequently applied to the inhabitants of all the Belgic provinces.

9. The manufactures of Belgium have been long celebrated: the towns most remarkable for them are Brussels, Malines, Antwerp, Ghent, Bruges, Mons, Namur, and Liege. The only sea-port of any consequence is Ostend on the shores of the province of West Flanders. Most of the great towns are fortified, and some of them are exceedingly strong, but they have not

been able to protect the country from the many sanguinary struggles into which it has been so frequently plunged.

KINGDOM OF HOLLAND.

10. Holland is bounded on the North and West by the North Sea ; on the South by the kingdom of Belgium ; and on the East by the kingdom of Hanover and the Rhenish Dominions of the King of Prussia. It contains 8,000 square miles, and its population in 1829 amounted to 2,130,880 souls, excluding the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, which is attached to it, and contains 1,820 square miles and 298,952 inhabitants. Subsequent to the year 1814 the king of Holland was made Sovereign of Belgium and Holland under the title of the King of the Netherlands, but the two countries, as we have seen above, are now distinct kingdoms.

11. The union of the Seven Dutch provinces at Utrecht, A. D. 1579, against the tyranny of Philip the 2nd. of Spain, was denominated the Republic of the Seven United Provinces or the Republic of Holland, the supreme magistrate being called the Stadtholder, i. e. the Defender of the State. One of these provinces has since been divided into two, so that Holland now contains eight provinces.

12. **GREAT NATURAL FEATURES.** There are no mountains in Holland ; the only land which is in any way elevated being on the South Eastern shores of the Zuyder Zee. The principal river is the Rhine, already described, which enters Holland near Nymegen, where it becomes divided into two arms. One of these arms, called the Whaal, joins the Maas near Gorinchem ; the true Rhine, on the other hand, continues its course Northward past Arnhem, below which it is likewise divided into two branches, the upper one, called the Old Rhine, running past Utrecht and Leyden into the sea at the Katwick Sluice, the lower one past Rotterdam, where it joins the Mouth of the Maas, and so enters the sea at the Brielle.

13. Amongst the other chief rivers may be mentioned the Issel, which rises in Westphalia (in Rhine-Prussia) and runs into the Zuyder Zee near Kampen : there is likewise a branch of it called the New Issel, which joins the Rhine at Arnhem. Farther N. is the R. Vechte, which rises not far from the Issel and likewise enters the Zuyder Zee.

14. The Zuyder Zee lies betwixt the five provinces of Holland, Utrecht, Gelderland, Overijssel, and Friesland, and has a great inlet on the West, called the Ye, which subdivides the province of Holland into North and South. The Zuyder Zee was formerly a great inland lake, called Flevo by the Ancients, through which the R. Rhine passed on its way to the ocean between the islands Vlieland and Ter Schelling; but in the progress of time the sea here made great inroads upon the land, and at last totally submerged all that part of the country which joined the province of Holland to those of Gelderland and Overijssel.

15. The Haarlem Zee is a branch of the Zuyder Zee which is connected with the inlet of the Ye at the City of Amsterdam; it has obtained its name from the famous town of Haarlem, which stands not far from its banks. The Lauwer Zee is a little gulf of the German Ocean running up between the provinces of Friesland and Groningen; to the East of it is another called The Dollart at the mouth of the R. Ems, on the common borders of Holland and Hanover. There are many other smaller lakes, some of which have been drained by the industry of the Dutch, and are now called *Polders*. There are likewise several extensive forests and moors, which it is unnecessary here to particularize.

16. The canals of Holland are very numerous, almost all the great towns being connected with each other by this kind of navigation. The most noble work of this kind is the Great Northern Canal, as it is called, which runs from the Northern point of the province of Holland down to Amsterdam, and thus saves vessels the dangerous and circuitous navigation of the Zuyder Zee: it is broad and deep enough to admit ships of the line. These canals greatly facilitate the communications of the interior with the outer provinces and the surrounding countries, from their being connected with the Rhine and the Maas, as well as with all the other rivers of any consequence which traverse Holland; indeed they are so numerous that the ordinary mode of passage, and in some cases the only one, from one town to another is by means of them.

17. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The established religion of Holland is the Calvinistic, but all sects are tolerated. The Dissenters are numerous, and all the clergy, whether Calvinistic or Dissenting, receive their salaries from the public treasury. There are likewise many Roman Catholics, but these are mostly in the Southern provinces. The government of Holland is a limited, hereditary monarchy, and its constitution bears a close resemblance to that of Great Britain. Its Parliament is composed of two Houses: the Upper House consists of members above forty years of age, who are elected for life by the king; the members of the

Lower House are chosen every three years by the people.

18. There are three well-known universities in Holland, viz. Leyden, Utrecht, and Groningen. But for the sake of those, to whom distance and expense might render it inconvenient to attend these universities for the completion of their education, there are other great seminaries established, where nearly the same instruction is given, but where no degrees can be conferred: they are called *Athenæa*, and are five in number, viz. Amsterdam, Harderwyk, Middleburg, Franeker, and Deventer. The Dutch language is a dialect of the German, and is generally called *low Dutch* in opposition to the latter language, which is the *high Dutch*. The people are called Dutch from the German word *Deutsch*, and their territory forms part of the extensive country called *Deutschland*, though we English restrict the term to a portion of the latter. The appellation *Holland* is derived from the German word *hohl*, synonymous with the English term *hollow*, and together with the adjunct *land*, denoting a hollow or very low country.

19. The kingdom of Holland contains eight principal provinces: three in the West, viz. Zeeland, Holland, and Utrecht; two in the centre, viz. Gelderland and Overijssel; and three in the North, viz. Drent, Friesland, and Groningen.

20. The population and chief towns of these provinces may be seen in the following table:

Provinces.	Population in 1829.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1829.
Holland - - -	889,400	The Hague or La Haye	44,000
Friesland - - -	225,556	Leeuwarden - -	17,800
Groningen - - -	197,000	Groningen - - -	27,300
Formerly { Drent - - -	78,718	Assen - - - -	1,300
one { Overijssel - - -	172,110	Zwolle - - - -	13,600
Gelderland - - -	285,000	Arnhem - - - -	10,200
Utrecht - - - -	186,826	Utrecht - - - -	36,500
Zeeland - - - -	146,270	Middleburgh - -	15,700

21. The metropolis of Holland, and the residence of the king and the legislature is The Hague, called also *Haag*, *Gravenhage*, and by the French *La Haye*. It is situated in the North Western part of the province of Holland, scarcely two miles from the shores of the North Sea; it is an open town and has no municipal rights, owing to which circumstances it is frequently termed a village. About a mile and a half to the S. E. of it is the castle of *Ryswick*, where the well known treaty of

peace was concluded in 1697, between England, Germany, Holland, France, and Spain.

22. Amsterdam is the commercial capital of Holland, and the largest city in the whole kingdom, its population amounting in 1821 to 221,000 souls: it is situated on an arm of the Zuyder Zee, about five miles from the main body of the gulf, where it receives the waters of the two little rivers Amstel and Ye. It derives its name from *Amstel* and *dam*, being, as it were, the dam or dike of the Amstel. In the beginning of the 13th century it was only the residence of a few fishermen; but growing populous soon after, the Earls of Holland gave it the title and privileges of a city. Before the French revolution, it was esteemed the second city in Europe in point of commerce; but it suffered very materially during the desolating times which followed that horrible massacre. The whole of the city is built upon piles.

23. To the S. E. of The Hague, is the famous port of Rotterdam, situated on the northern bank of the Maas, where it receives the waters of the little R. Rotte; the harbour is very convenient, of easy access from the German Ocean, and so deep that vessels of any burden can enter it: with regard to commerce, Rotterdam ranks next to Amsterdam amongst the towns of Holland. Rotterdam was the birth-place of the learned Erasmus. At the mouth of the Maas is the famous harbour of the Brielle, the station of the pilots who conduct vessels up the river; it is remarkable in the history of Dutch independence as the first place taken by the confederates in 1572, and the spot where they laid the foundation of their republic. To the S. of it at the lower mouth of the Maas is Helvoetsluis, the regular station of the packets to England; it has an excellent harbour capable of holding the whole Dutch navy, besides extensive dock-yards and magazines.

24. Amongst other chief towns of Holland may be noticed Haarlem, situated on the R. Spaaren in the province of Holland a few miles to the W. of Amsterdam; it contains about 25,000 inhabitants, and was formerly so strongly fortified as to sustain a severe siege against the Spaniards for eight months in the year 1573, but the ramparts are now converted into public promenades. Its church is said to be the largest in Holland, and contains one of the most perfect organs in the world. To the S. of Haarlem is Leyden, so famous for its university and for the siege which it successfully withstood against the Spaniards in 1573: between it and Rotterdam are the two manufacturing towns Gouda and Delft, the latter of which has given name to a peculiar kind of earthenware.

25. The Grand Duchy of Luxemburg lies at the South Eastern extremity of the kingdom of Belgium, which bounds it on the North; on the West and South it touches upon France, and on the E. upon Rhine-Prussia: *its capital is also called Luxemburg and contains about*

10,000 inhabitants. The king of Holland is likewise Grand Duke of Luxemburg, and as such has 3 votes in the German Diet.

26. The Dutch possess many settlements in different parts of the world. In Asia they claim the islands of Java, Sumatra, Madura, Billiton, Celebes, Borneo, Sumbawa, Timor, Ternate, Tidore, Batchian, Amboyna, Booro, Ceram, New Guinea, and several others of little consequence: but, with the exception of the first of these islands, which is completely under their control, they rather claim the dominion over most of them, than actually possess it. They likewise have factories at Malacca, on the peninsula of Malacca; and at Sadras, on the coast of Coromandel, in India. In Africa they have several small forts on the coast of Guinea, the chief of which is the castle of El Mina. In America, they possess the colony of Surinam in Guyana, the islands of Curaçao, Oruba, Buen Ayre, St. Eustathius, Saba, and the Southern part of St. Martin's, the Northern part of the latter island belonging to the French.

CHAPTER VII.

KINGDOM OF SPAIN.

1. SPAIN is bounded on the N. by the range of the Pyrenees and the Bay of Biscay; on the E. and S. by the Mediterranean Sea; and on the W. by the kingdom of Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean. Its greatest length from N. to S. is about 460 miles; and its greatest breadth from E. to W. about 570, but its average breadth does not exceed 350. Including the Balearic Isles it occupies a superficial extent of 145,100 square miles; and, according to the census taken in 1826, contained 13,732,200 inhabitants.

2. THE PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS of Spain are the Pyrenees, which separate it from France, and extend

from the Mediterranean Sea to the Bay of Biscay : the continuation of them Westward through Biscay, the Asturias, and Galicia, to their termination at C. Finis-terra, is in a general way called the Santillanos Mountains. There is a lower ridge which quits the Santillanos near the source of the R. Minho, and winds its way between this river and the R. Douro into the Portuguese province of *Tras-os-Montes*, which has derived its appellation from them ; this range has various names, amongst others those of *Monte Ladoco* and *Las Medulas*.

3. There is a range of mountains which detaches itself from the Pyrenees near the springs of the R. Ebro, and traverses with a winding course the Eastern part of Spain, till it reaches the Mediterranean Sea at C. S. Martin opposite the Balearic Isles ; it is now called by the various names of *M^s. de Burgos*, *M. Albarracin*, *Sierra Albayda*, &c., and is the only range running in a North and South direction, the others trending generally East and West : hence it divides the rivers of Spain into two classes, such as have an Easterly and such as have a Westerly course. The continuation of this range passes through the great province of Andalusia, and terminates at the Rock of Gibraltar ; it has several names, such as *La Sagra Sierra* in Murcia, and *Sierra Nevada* in Granada.

4. The Castilian Mountains separate the rivers Douro and Tagus ; they strike out Westward from the *M^s. of Burgos*, near the sources of these two rivers, traverse the great province of Castile, whence they have derived their name, and after having separated the provinces of Leon and Estremadura, enter Portugal : they completely intersect this kingdom under the names of *Sierra Estrella* and *Monte Junto*, and finally terminate in the Rock of Lisbon or C. Roca, the Westernmost land of the continent of Europe.

5. The *Sierra de Toledo* runs in a direction nearly parallel with the preceding, and separates the R. Tagus from the R. Guadiana ; it has its origin between the sources of these two rivers in *M^t. Albarracin*, whence it proceeds Westward through the provinces of New Castile and

Estremadura where it enters Portugal : here it is known as the Sierra Arminno, and having intersected the Portuguese provinces of Alentejo and Algarve, it terminates on the Atlantic Ocean at the famous C. S. Vincent, the South Western extremity of Portugal. The Sierra Morena issues from La Sagra Sierra, and proceeding Westward, separates the rivers Guadiana and Guadalquivir ; its Western part is called the Sierra de Aroche, and terminates on the shores of the B. of Cadiz near the mouth of the R. Guadiana.

6. THE CHIEF RIVERS of Spain. The Ebro, the most Northern of these, rises in the angle formed by the mountains of Santillanos and Burgos ; hence it runs between the provinces of Old Castile, Biscay, and Navarre, through Aragon and Catalonia, with a South Eastern course into the Mediterranean Sea, not far from Tortosa, and opposite to the Balearic Isles : its length is 370 miles, and it is the only great Spanish river which finds its way to the Mediterranean Sea. Its principal tributaries are the Segre, the Aragon, and the Xalon.

7. The R. Minho is in the North Western corner of Spain ; it rises in the Santillanos Mountains in the province of Leon, passes through a part of Galicia, and enters the Atlantic Ocean on the borders of the latter province and the Portuguese province of Entre-Douro-e-Minho : it is 180 miles long. To the S. of it is the Douro, the mouth of which is also in the Atlantic, at Oporto ; it rises in the M^t. de Burgos in Old Castile, which province as well as that of Leon it completely intersects, and then passes through the Northern part of Portugal : its length is 410 miles. Its chief tributaries are the Esla and Pisuegra on the N., with the Eresma and Tormes on the South.

8. The R. Tagus or Tajo, the largest river of Spain, rises in M^t. Albarracin in New Castile, which province and that of Estremadura it successively traverses, and then intersecting Portugal, empties itself into the Atlantic Ocean at Lisbon : it is 530 miles long. The Guadiana, the next greatest river to the South, rises near the junction of the mountains Albarracin and Sierra

de Toledo, in New Castile; after flowing through this province and that of Estremadura with a Westerly course, it enters the kingdom of Portugal and finally the Atlantic Ocean, about midway between Cadiz and Cape St. Vincent: its length is 470 miles.

9. The Guadalquivir is the Southernmost of the great rivers of Spain. It rises in the angle formed by the Sierra Morena and La Sagra Sierra, and after flowing through the whole of the great province of Andalusia enters the Atlantic Ocean below Seville and to the N. of Cadiz: it is 330 miles long. It formerly entered the sea by two mouths, the Eastern one of which that used to run into Cadiz Harbour has now disappeared.

10. CHIEF CAPES, GULFS, &c. The most remarkable promontories of Spain on the Atlantic Ocean are C. Ortegal, in Galicia, the Northernmost point of the peninsula; C. Finisterra, the most Western cape of Galicia; and the ever memorable C. Trafalgar, the South Western cape of Seville. On the Mediterranean Sea are C. Gata, the South Eastern point of Granada; C. Palos, the South Eastern extremity of the peninsula; C. S. Martin, in Valencia, opposite to the island of Iviza; and C. Creux, the Eastern termination of the Pyrenees.

11. The Bay of Biscay lies between the Western shores of France and the provinces of Biscay, Asturias, and Galicia in Spain. The Bay of Cadiz, so called from the famous city which stands upon its shores, is on the Western coast of the province of Seville. The Gulf of Cartagena washes the coast of the province of Murcia and partly that of Granada; above it, on the shores of Valencia, opposite the Balearic Isles, are the Gulfs of Alicante and Valencia.

12. The only Strait of any consequence is the Strait of Gibraltar, separating the coast of Seville, which is the Southernmost part of Spain, from the Northernmost part of the kingdom of Fez in Africa. It has obtained its name from the famous Rock of Gibraltar, which belongs to the British, and is 22 miles distant from the opposite Rock of Ceuta in Africa: these two rocks were called by the Ancients the Pillars of Hercules. The

length of the Strait from the Mediterranean Sea to the Atlantic Ocean is 34 miles, and its narrowest part is 8 miles across.

13. The Moors invaded Spain about A. D. 711, and after the loss of a great battle, which cost Roderick the King of the Goths his life, they succeeded in a few years in overrunning the whole country, excepting the Asturias. Thither the remainder of the Gothic forces for a while retired; but rallying from their strong holds, under some noble and gallant leaders, they soon recovered parts of Leon and Castile. Shortly afterwards Old Castile and Aragon were entirely recovered, and about the year 1080, the Christians conquered the whole of New Castile, including Madrid and Toledo. These attacks on the Moorish power were facilitated by its division into several distinct principalities or kingdoms. At last, the Christian kingdoms of Leon, Castile, and Aragon, having been united by the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon with Isabella of Castile, the Moors were unable to resist so powerful a union, and accordingly, eighteen years afterwards, A. D. 1492, Granada, the last and most valuable of their Spanish possessions, was wrested from them.

14. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The established religion of Spain is the Roman Catholic, of the most superstitious and bigoted character, and no other sect is tolerated by law. The government of the country is an absolute hereditary monarchy, females being capable of succeeding to the crown.

15. The clergy of Spain are a numerous body, irrationally zealous in their opinions, and disgracefully lax in their morals. The number of ecclesiastics of all denominations is about 160,000, and to these the people are slaves. In support of the church the dreadful tribunal of the Inquisition exercises its disgraceful and inhuman power; it was established soon after the year 1492, in order to watch over the religion of the kingdom, and, eventually, to clear it of the Moors and Jews, but it soon found means to extend its baneful influence over the Christian sectaries, and is now little else than an engine of political rapine. Its judges, in former ages, were chiefly Dominican monks; but they have latterly consisted of the regular clergy with a certain proportion of laymen.

16. The government of Spain was for a long time somewhat limited, the people being represented by their Cortes, an assembly which, though exceedingly rude and irregular, performed the office of checking tyranny as well as of guarding the public purse, and of making known the public grievances. But after the union of the different provinces into one kingdom, in the fifteenth century, the concentration of power in the executive branch enabled the latter to dispense with the Cortes, and to encroach on the liberties of the provinces; so that, on the accession of the Bourbon Dynasty in 1700, there remained hardly any vestige of independence, except in Biscay. The heir apparent to the crown of Spain is styled Prince of the Asturias; the other princes of the royal family are called Infants, and the princesses Infantas.

17. Spain once possessed 24 universities, but it has now only 11; these are, Salamanca, Valladolid, Alcalá, Seville, Valencia, Granada, Cervera, Saragossa, Oviedo, Huesca, and Compostella. Little encouragement, however, is given, either to learning or to learned men. Improvement is checked by the

Kingdom of Spain.

bigotry of superstition, and by the influence of the Roman Catholic clergy, who, being illiterate themselves, endeavour as far as possible to suppress all scientific accomplishment among the laity, and to keep them in ignorance and subjection. The progressive diminution of its universities has been followed by the gradual degradation of those which remain: and though the antiquated and careless system of education carried on in them has been of late years somewhat improved, they are still very far behind those of Great Britain, Germany, or France.

18. Spain is divided into several great provinces; these formed as many separate governments under the Christian and Moorish chieftains, and though, at the close of the fifteenth century, they were all united under one head, the divisions, and even the titles (generally of kingdoms) have been retained. These provinces are 14 in number, and contain 56 subdivisions. The names of the provinces are Galicia, Leon, Old Castile, Asturias, Biscay, Navarre, Aragon, and Catalonia, in the North; Estremadura, New Castile, and Valencia, in the centre; Andalusia, Murcia, and the Balearic Isles, in the South.

19. The subdivisions of these provinces, with their chief towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

Great Divisions.		Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1826.
NORTHERN PROVINCES:	Galicia	Corunna - -	Corunna - -	15,000
		Betanzos - -	Betanzos - -	4,000
		Santiago or Compostella - -	Santiago or Compostella - -	28,000
		Tuy or Vigo - -	Tuy - -	6,000
		Orense - -	Orense - -	4,600
		Lugo - -	Lugo - -	7,000
	Leon -	Mondoñedo - -	Mondoñedo - -	6,100
		Villafranca - -	Villafranca - -	2,900
		Leon - -	Leon - -	8,000
		Zamora or Toro - -	Zamora - -	9,900
		Salamanca - -	Salamanca - -	14,000
		Valladolid - -	Valladolid - -	26,000
	Old Castile	Palencia - -	Palencia - -	10,800
		Avila - -	Avila - -	4,000
		Segovia - -	Segovia - -	12,900
		Soria - -	Soria - -	5,400
		Logrono - -	Logrono - -	7,000
		Burgos - -	Burgos - -	12,000
	Asturias	Santander - -	Santander - -	19,000
		Oviedo - -	Oviedo - -	10,500

Great Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Estimation Population in 1826.
Biscay	Guipuscoa or St. Sebastian	St. Sebastian	9,000
	Biscay or Bilbao	Bilbao	15,000
	Alava or Vittoria	Vittoria	12,000
Navarre	Pampeluna	Pampeluna	15,000
Aragon	Huesca	Huesca	3,200
	Saragossa	Saragossa	43,400
	Calatayud	Calatayud	9,000
	Teruel	Teruel	7,500
Catalonia	Lerida	Lerida	18,000
	Gerona	Gerona	14,000
	Barcelona	Barcelona	150,000
	Tarragona	Tarragona	11,000
Extremadura	Caceres	Caceres	10,000
	Badajoz	Badajoz	12,000
New Castile	Madrid	Madrid	201,300
	Guadalaxara	Guadalaxara	6,700
	Cuenca	Cuenca	7,000
	Toledo	Toledo	15,000
	La Mancha or Ciudad Real.	Ciudad Real	8,000
Valencia	Castellon de la Plana	Castellon de la Plana	15,000
	Valencia	Valencia	65,800
	St. Felipe Xativa	St. Felipe Xativa	10,000
	Alicante	Alicante	23,000
Andalusia	Huelva	Huelva	7,900
	Seville	Seville	91,000
	Cadiz	Cadiz	72,000
	Cordova	Cordova	46,000
	Jaen	Jaen	18,700
	Malaga	Malaga	51,900
	Granada	Granada	65,000
	Almeria	Almeria	10,000
Murcia	Chinchilla	Chinchilla	7,000
	Murcia	Murcia	35,600
Balearic Isles	Majorca	Palma	34,000
	Minorca	Mahon	19,000
	Iviza	Iviza	5,000

Madrid, the metropolis of Spain, is situated on a small tributary of the R. Tagus, called the Manzanares; it is nearly in the centre of the kingdom, and

stands on several eminences in a large plain 2,200 feet above the level of the sea, being the most elevated capital in Europe. It is of an oblong form, about six miles in circuit, and is surrounded by a high, earthen wall, but has no ditch or any other means of defence. Before the reign of Henry 4th, it was an insignificant place with a small castle, which served as a royal hunting seat; but it is now a handsome city, the head-quarters of the Spanish government, and the residence of the king: it contains about 201,000 inhabitants. The plain in which Madrid stands is sandy and dry, and bounded on all sides by mountains: the environs are miserably cultivated, owing to the oppressive exactions of the Spanish government. The Escorial, the favourite residence of the king, is a superb palace 22 miles to the N. W. of Madrid, in a corner of a lofty ridge of mountains, and environed by woodlands and green fields: it is built in the form of a gridiron, and is the largest, though by no means the most elegant palace in Europe. It was commenced by Philip 2nd, A. D. 1557, in commemoration of the victory of St. Quentin, which he gained over the French on the day of St. Lorenzo, the Spanish saint, after whom it was named; hence its whimsical shape, in allusion to the manner of his death.

21. In the North Western part of the Peninsula, upon the shores of Galicia, stands Corunna, memorable for the defeat which the French, under Soult, suffered from the British, under the command of the gallant Sir John Moore, who was killed in the action, A. D. 1809; this obstinate battle was followed up by a series of splendid victories, which finally compelled the French to evacuate the country. Corunna has a very commodious harbour, which is one of the principal points of communication between Spain and her colonies: the intercourse, likewise, between our own country and Spain is kept up by packets from Falmouth to Corunna. But the great naval arsenal of the kingdom is at Ferrol, about 12 miles N. E. of Corunna; it is exceedingly strong and well fortified, and in it during the late wars both the Spanish and French fleets were glad to find security from the English navy.

22. In the Southern part of Leon is the fortified town of Ciudad Rodrigo, situated on the little river Agueda, which is a tributary of the Douro; it is only 15 miles from the frontiers of Portugal, and was taken by storm, from the French, by Lord Wellington in the year 1812. To the N. E. of it, on the banks of the Tormes, another tributary of the Douro, lies the ancient city Salamanca, containing the most celebrated university in Spain; it is by no means well attended, notwithstanding the absurdly exaggerated accounts of the number of its students which is frequently met with in the *history of former times*. The neighbourhood of Salamanca is famous for a *severe engagement* between the British under the Earl of Wellington, and

The French under Marmont, six months after the preceding victory at Ciudad Rodrigo: the French were totally defeated, and compelled to retreat upon Burgos. Twelve months afterwards, A.D. 1813, they were again beaten under Jourdan, by the British under the Marquis of Wellington, at Vittoria Biscay; this little town, situated on the banks of the R. Zadora, which runs into the Ebro, obtained its name from a victory gained there by the Spaniards over the Moors.

23. The city of Saragossa stands on the Ebro, about the middle of its course and at the confluence of its two tributaries the Gaillego and Guerva: it is a large and populous city, surrounded by an earthen wall, but otherwise unfortified, and is celebrated for the gallant resistance it made against the French in two sieges during the year 1808, shortly after they had obtained possession of Navarre. The first of these sieges took place in the summer, and, after a severe loss, the French were compelled to raise it and retire; but the second, which was laid six months afterwards, was closely allowed up by a dreadful bombardment of six weeks, and by a very unequal contest in mining, and these, together with a desolating fever, which broke out amongst the garrison, caused Saragossa to surrender. Barcelona, the second metropolis in Spain, is the most flourishing and commercial city in the whole country; it is distinguished for the industry of its inhabitants, and owes its prosperity and opulence chiefly to its admirable situation upon the shores of the Mediterranean, which is highly convenient for traffic with foreign nations.

24. Toledo is an ancient city in the N. W. of New Castile, situated on the R. Tagus, about 30 miles to the S. W. of Madrid; the river is said to have been navigable thus far in former times, when the commerce of the city was much more important than it is now. Toledo is much celebrated in the history of Spain, as having been successively the seat of government under the Goths, the Moors, and the kings of Castile: it was once noted for its admirable sword-blades. About 35 miles lower down the Tagus, on the same side of the river, is Talavera, where the French, under Soult, were severely defeated by the British under Lord Wellington, in the year 1809. Badajoz, memorable for its siege and capture by our brave troops under their noble commander, A.D. 1812, is a very strong fortress on the left bank of the Guadiana, in the W. of Estremadura, scarcely five miles from the frontiers of Portugal. To the S. of it, on the shores of the Bay of Cadiz, and at the mouth of the little R. Tinto, stands the petty town Palos, remarkable as having been the port whence Columbus sailed in 1492, on his first voyage for the discovery of the New World.

25. Seville, one of the most flourishing and handsome cities in the S. of Spain, is situated on the S. bank of the R. Guadalquivir, about 35 miles from its mouth; it was the residence of the Gothic kings before they removed their court to Toledo: its cathedral is the largest Gothic edifice in the Peninsula, and one of the largest churches in all Europe. Below this, at the mouth of the little river Guadalete, is the city of Cadiz, situated at the N. W. extremity of the I. of Leon: it gives name to the Bay of Cadiz, and possesses a beautiful harbour, which is one of the finest in the world, and is the grand rendezvous for the Spanish navy. Next to Barcelona, it is the most important commercial town in the Peninsula, being the central point of the trade with America, an advantage which was formerly materially increased by its being constituted a free port: it is exceedingly strong, being surrounded on three sides by the sea, and having but a very narrow communication with the land. A few miles to the N. E. of Cadiz is Xerez de la Frontera, a small place of little consequence, though of great antiquity.

it was in the plain, adjoining the town, that the famous battle between the Moors and the Goths was fought, A. D. 711, in which the latter were totally defeated, their king Roderick slain, and their empire completely overturned. The surrounding country produces the wine known by the name of Sherry, a corruption of Xerez; there are likewise some sweet wines produced in the neighbourhood, amongst others the *Vino Tinto*, or *Tent Wine*.

26. About 25 miles to the S. of Cadiz, nearly midway between it and Gibraltar, is Cape Trafalgar, where the ever-memorable battle was fought, A. D. 1805, between the British Fleet, commanded by Lord Nelson, and the combined fleets of France and Spain, under Villeneuve: the enemy's force amounted to 34 sail of the line, out of which 19 were taken, whilst the British had only 24 of the same rank, and were out-numbered in frigates in a similar proportion. The loss of the British did not exceed 1,600 men, whilst that of the enemy amounted to as many thousands. This glorious triumph, accomplished in less than four hours, amply displayed the superiority of the British officers and seamen; it was a triumph of skill, steadiness, and discipline, but the gallant admiral, whose talents had planned the order of battle, and whose intrepidity led on his brave sailors, was shot by a rifle-man during the engagement, having only survived long enough to learn that his efforts in the cause of his country had been crowned with glorious success. To the S. E. of Trafalgar, about the middle of the Strait of Gibraltar, stands the meanly-built, walled town of Tarifa, where a party of our troops lodged in it, baffled all the efforts of the French to take it, after a long siege: it is also remarkable as the place where the Moors made their first descent upon the country under the command of their leader Tarif, whence the name of the town.

27. The city of Granada is in the Northern part of the province of the same name, on a branch of the river Genil, which is a tributary of the Guadalquivir; the situation is exceedingly romantic, being surrounded by lofty mountains, some of which towards the S. are amongst the highest in the Peninsula. In the time of the Moors, who made it the capital of their empire, Granada was the seat of elegance and luxury, but all its glory disappeared with them; the splendid palace of the Alhambra, the favourite residence of their kings, is greatly decayed, but enough of it remains to attest its former grandeur.

28. At the Southern extremity of Spain, and at the Eastern end of the Strait to which it has given name, is the lofty promontory of Gibraltar, the key of the Mediterranean, belonging to the British. It consists of a great rocky mountain, running from North to South, about three miles in length, from half to three-quarters of a mile in width, and from 1,200 to 1,440 feet in height. On the N. side is a low isthmus nowhere more than ten feet high, about a mile and a half in length, and about half as much in width, which is the only connection between this vast mass of rock and the continent. The Northern front of the rock is almost perpendicular; the Eastern side is formed of frightful precipices; the Southern is narrow and abrupt; the Western front is almost as abrupt, but it may be approached by shipping from the bay, and hence, owing to the efforts of assailants having been made on this side, the great batteries and works of defence have been erected here. It was occupied by the Moors during their first attack on Spain, A. D. 711, and from their leader, Tarif or Tarik, it obtained the name of *Gebel Tarif*, or *Tarif's Mountain*, which the Spaniards have altered into *Gibraltar*. It was first fortified in the modern style during the reign of Charles 5th. It was taken by the English in 1704, since which time it has been repeatedly attacked, but always without success: it is deemed impregnable. The town

lands at the foot of the promontory, on the North Western side. Its inhabitants are composed of British, Spaniards, Italians, Jews, Moors, &c., amounting to about 15,000, exclusive of the garrison. The possession of Gibraltar is of importance in a military, as well as a commercial, point of view: its spacious bay affords a safe station for our fleets and ships of war, employed along the coasts of Spain and Africa, or in the Mediterranean, whilst the warehouses of the town prove a convenient dépôt for our merchandise.

29. The Balearic Isles consist of the three islands Mallorca (or Majorca), Minorca, and Iviza, though the last is by some not reckoned as one of them. They lie off the province of Valencia in the Eastern part of Spain; Iviza, which is the nearest of them, being about 50 miles distant from C. S. Martin on the coast of the peninsula. Mallorca is by far the largest island; its chief town is Palma. The capital of Minorca is Ciudadela, but by far the most important place in it, and indeed of the whole group, is the valuable harbour of Port Mahon.

30. The foreign possessions of Spain were once of vast extent, but owing to tyranny and bad government they are very much reduced both in number and importance. In Asia it possesses the Philippine Islands, the Marianne or Ladrone Islands, and some of the Caroline Islands; in Africa, Ceuta, Peñon de Velez, Melilla, and the Canary Islands, besides a few factories at different parts of the main-land; in America, Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Falkland Islands. In the last-mentioned continent, Spain once possessed Mexico, and the whole of South America, with the exception of Brazil and Guyana, but the countries over which its dominion formerly extended, have now constituted themselves into several separate states, the independence of which has been recognized by every respectable power in Europe.

KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL.

31. Portugal, the most Western kingdom in Europe, is bounded on the N. and E. by Spain, on the S. and W. by the Atlantic Ocean. Its greatest length is rather more than 300 miles, and its average width about 90: it contains about 26,200 square miles, and its estimated population in 1826 amounted to 3,683,400 souls.

32. *CHIEF NATURAL FEATURES.* The principal

mountains of Portugal have been already mentioned in the description of Spain, as they are only the continuation and termination of the ranges by which that country is intersected. The most northern of them is the range of Monte Ladoco, which is an arm of that Western continuation of the Pyrenees called Santillanos: it separates the rivers Douro and Minho, and gives its mountainous character to the province of Tras-os-Montes. Farther S. between the rivers Douro and Tagus Portugal is traversed by the continuation of the Castilian Mountains, which terminate in C. Roca, or the Rock of Lisbon, the Westernmost land of the continent of Europe; as soon as they enter Portugal they are distinguished by the names of Sierra Estrella and Me. Junto. The Southernmost great range in the kingdom is that of the Sierra de Toledo, which enters Portugal on the borders of Estremadura and Alentejo, and terminates in C. S. Vincent the South Western extremity of Portugal: where it quits Spain it is called Sierra Árminno, but its name towards C. S. Vincent is Sierra de Monchique.

33. The great rivers of Portugal all rise in Spain. Its Northern boundary is partly formed by the R. Minho. Farther S. is the R. Douro which rises in the Eastern part of Old Castile and enters the Atlantic Ocean at Oporto. Lower down are the smaller rivers of Vouga and Mondego, both of which have their sources in Portugal; the former empties itself into the sea at Aveiro, the latter below Coimbra. The Tagus or Tajo, which follows next to the S., rises in the Eastern part of New Castile and joins the sea at Lisbon. The Guadiana which is the Southernmost river of Portugal rises not far from the Tagus, and runs into the Bay of Cadiz at Ayamonte, where for a short distance it forms the boundary between the kingdom of Portugal and the province of Seville in Spain.

34. The chief capes of Portugal are C. Roca or the Rock of Lisbon, to the West of Lisbon; C. Espichel to the S. of the mouth of the Tagus; the famous C. S. Vincent, the South Western point of the kingdom; and C. S. Maria, where Portugal stretches farthest to the South.

RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The established religion is Roman Catholic, of a form grossly superstitious; the number of priests and monks is very great, they are in a deplorable state of ignorance, though many of them are possessed of enormous wealth. The Inquisition likewise spreads its baneful influence over the whole, and under the pretence of defending the faith from the attacks of heretics, commits all sorts of cruelties upon the lives and property of its inhabitants.

Portugal is an hereditary monarchy, females are allowed to succeed to the throne. It had formerly, like Spain, its Cortes, or representative body, but they have not been assembled since the year 1697, and the legislative, as well as the executive functions are now wholly vested in the king.

After the Moors had made themselves masters of the Southern parts of the country, in the beginning of the eighth century, they proceeded to overrun the whole; but the mountainous nature of the country favouring the operations of the natives, the Northern part of it was soon recovered. In 1093 Duke of Burgundy, having rendered great service to the Duke of Castile against the Moors, obtained his daughter in marriage, and the sovereignty of such parts of Portugal as were not in the hands of the invaders. He governed with the title of Earl, but his son and successor having 46 years afterwards obtained a decisive victory over the Moors, assumed the title of king: he subsequently occupied Lisbon, and before he died the succession of the crown regularly settled on his descendants. The marriage of the male line of the royal family in 1580, enabled the well-known Philip 2d of Spain to annex Portugal to his own kingdom without difficulty. In this humiliated state it continued for 60 years, when a successful insurrection led to the expulsion of the Spaniards from Portugal, and the conferring of the crown upon the Duke of Bragança, a descendant of the ancient royal family. After this period, Portugal remained subject to its own sovereigns till the year 1807, when it was invaded by the French, and became shortly afterwards the scene of a military contest between them and the British, which ended in the former people being driven from the country. During the French invasion the Portuguese royal family fled to Brazil, where they remained till A. D. 1821: during this interval Portugal was governed by a council of regency. The alliance of Portugal with England may be dated, in some measure, from the reign of Charles the Fifth, who married a Portuguese princess; but more particularly from the beginning of the 18th century, when the throne of Spain was occupied by Philip the Fifth of the Bourbons.

1. Portugal is divided into six provinces, viz. Entre-os-Rios and Tras-os-Montes in the North; Beira in the centre; and Estremadura, Alentejo, and Algarve in the South.

38. The chief towns of these, together with their estimated population, may be seen in the following table:

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1826.
Entre-Douro-e-Minho	Braga	14,500
Tras-os-Montes	Bragança	3,900
Beira	Coimbra	15,500
Estremadura	Lisbon	260,000
Alentejo	Evora	12,000
Algarve	Tavira	8,700

39. Lisbon, the metropolis of Portugal and the residence of the Royal Family and the Court, is beautifully situated at the mouth of the R. Tagus, which here expands into a great body of water nearly eight miles wide. It is built on three hills, and lies along the river in the shape of a half-moon, being nearly four miles in length, and from 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ in breadth: it is unfortified and open on all sides. The inhabitants, whose number in 1826 was estimated to be 260,000, are enterprising and industrious, engrossing all the colonial, and three-fourths of the foreign trade of the kingdom. In the year 1755, a great part of the city was laid in ruins by one of the most fatal earthquakes ever experienced; almost all the public buildings, and 6,000 of the dwelling-houses were overturned, and many more were destroyed by a raging fire which broke out at the same time, having been kindled by fires in private dwellings, and the tapers in the churches: the loss of lives was computed at considerably more than 30,000. Many years elapsed before Lisbon recovered from this calamity, and the traces of it are still visible in many parts of the city. The mouth of the Tagus is guarded by the castle of St. Julian, which is founded on a rock, and its base washed by the sea.

40. To the N. E. of Lisbon, on the right bank of the R. Mondego, stands the city of Coimbra, formerly the residence of the Kings of Portugal, and containing the tombs of several members of the royal family: it is chiefly famed for its university, the only establishment of the kind in the kingdom, and which was originally founded at Lisbon in 1290, but removed hither at the beginning of the following century. Oporto is situated in the S. W. corner of the province of Entre-Douro-e-Minho, on the northern banks of the Douro, about two miles from its mouth. It stands partly on a hill and

partly on the banks of the river, and is surrounded by an old wall, which in many places has fallen to ruin : it is in general a well-built town, being accounted the cleanest and most agreeable in all Portugal. It derived its name Oporto, (*i. e.* O Porto, the Port,) from its being situated at the mouth of a great river ; it has long been the mercantile emporium for the North of Portugal, and particularly for the export of the wine, hence called Port. This wine is produced at a considerable distance from Oporto, in the province of *Tras-os-Montes*, and in some districts of *Entre-Douro-e-Minho*. The population of Oporto in 1826 was estimated at 80,000 souls.

41. The province of *Algarve*, the most southern in Portugal, was once an independent kingdom, and still gives the title of King to the Portuguese monarch. The South Western extremity of it, and indeed of the whole country, is called Cape St. Vincent, and is celebrated for the decisive victory obtained off it, over the Spanish fleet, *A. D.* 1797, by Admiral Sir John Jervis, for which service he was created Earl St. Vincent.

42. The Portuguese have many colonies and settlements in different parts of the globe. In Africa, they possess *Madeira*, the *Azores* or *Western Islands*, the *Cape Verde Islands*, with settlements in *Guinea*, *Angola*, *Monomotapa*, and *Mozambique* : in Asia, they possess the province of *Goa*, in *India* ; *Macao*, near *Canton* ; and settlements on the I. of *Timor*. Besides these, they once had dominion over *Brazil*, but this latter country has of late years been constituted a separate empire.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE REPUBLIC OF SWITZERLAND.

1. THE Republic of Switzerland, or the *Helvetic Confederacy* as it is sometimes called, is bounded on the W. by France, on the S. by the continental dominions of the King of *Sardinia* and by the Empire of *Austria*, on the E. by the latter power, and on the N. by the kingdom of *Wurtemberg* and the grand duchy of *Baden*, being separated from the two last by the L. of *Constance* and the R. *Rhine*. Switzerland touches nowhere upon the sea. It contains 12,800 square miles, and its estimated population in 1821 was about 1,945,000 souls.

2. *PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS.* Switzerland is by far

the most mountainous country in Europe; it has the Alps, not only along the whole of its Southern and Eastern frontiers, towering above them to the height of from ten to fifteen thousand feet, but extending in various ramifications over the chief part of the interior of the country. It is likewise bounded on the West towards France by the lofty ranges of Mount Jura and the Bœtzberg, which last, as we have seen, joins the range of the Vosges. Amongst the highest mountains in Switzerland may be mentioned the Great St. Bernard, M^t. Cervin, M^t. Rosa, M^t. St. Gothard, the Seidelhorn, Aarhorn, Schreckhorn, Wetterhorn, Jungfrau, Furca, Gallenstock, and M^t. Rigi. The Simplon and the Splugen, so well known from the famous passes across them may also be mentioned, though they are not so lofty as many other points in the country; the road over the former leads from Bryg in the canton of Valais to Domo d'Ossola in Italy, and the latter from the canton of the Grisons to the Valtellina. M^t. Blanc, the highest point in the Alps, although commonly described as in Switzerland, is in fact in the Kingdom of Sardinia, between Savoy and Piedmont.

3. The plains or hollows between the peaks of the highest mountains are occupied by glaciers; these are lakes of frozen snow, accumulated to a vast depth, and detaching from time to time enormous masses, called avalanches, which roll down with a frightful noise into the plains below, and sometimes overwhelm a whole village with destruction. The surface of the glaciers is in some cases smooth and unbroken, but in others it is marked by deep chasms, and by pinnacles of ice rising in the most fantastic forms above the sea of snow with which they are surrounded. Their depth is supposed to vary from 100 to 600 feet, and the total extent of surface which they cover, is estimated to be nearly 1,500 miles. Their formation requires such an intensity of cold, that none are found in any other parts of Europe, except in a few elevated spots of the Pyrennes, and the bleakest mountains of Sweden and Norway.

4. **PRINCIPAL RIVERS.** The R. Rhine rises in the Canton of the Grisons from two sources, called the Farther and the Hither Rhine, whence it flows with a Northerly course into the L. of Constance; after its exit from this lake it takes a Westerly direction to Basel, where it quits Switzerland and runs Northward between France, Germany, and Holland, into the North Sea. The *chief Swiss tributary* of the Rhine is the Aare, which

rises in the S. part of the canton of Bern, and after being increased by its adjuncts the Simmen, Saane, Orbe, Emmen, Reuss, and Limmat, enters the great river in the canton of Argau at Waldshut. The R. Thur, another tributary of the Rhine, rises in St. Gallen, which canton as well as those of Thurgau and Zurich it flows through, and then joins the main river below Schaffhausen.

5. The Rhone rises in Mt. St. Gothard at the Eastern extremity of the Valais, which canton it completely intersects and then enters the L. of Geneva: it quits this lake at the town of Geneva, and then flows through France with a Southerly course into the Mediterranean Sea. The R. Arve joins the Rhone at Geneva, but runs through a very small portion of Switzerland, by far the greater part of it being in Savoy. The R. Tessin or Ticino rises on the Southern side of Mt. S. Gothard, and after traversing the canton of Tessin flows through Lago Maggiore into the Po near Pavia. The R. Inn rises in Mt. Bernina in the S. part of the canton of the Grisons, whence it flows with a N. E. course of 300 miles into the Danube at Passau.

6. Switzerland is likewise remarkable for the number of its lakes, the scenery round which is exceedingly beautiful and romantic. The principal ones are those of Geneva (or Leman), which is partly in the kingdom of Savoy, Constance (or the Bodensee), which is partly in Germany, Neuchâtel, Lucerne (or the Vier Waldstätter See), Zurich, Thun, Brienz, Zug, Bieme, Morat, Wallenstadt, Sempach, and Greiffen. Most of them are navigable, and thus become very important features in so broken and uneven a country, where land-carriage is both difficult and expensive; it is owing to this circumstance that many of the Swiss towns are built upon their shores.

7. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. About two-thirds of the inhabitants of Switzerland profess the Protestant Religion; the remainder are Roman Catholics. Switzerland is a union of twenty-two Cantons or petty states, differing exceedingly from each other in their respective constitutions: the allied Powers recognized its perpetual neutrality by the treaty of Paris. Each canton is an independent republic, but for general security they are all united into a confederacy governed by a Diet or general assembly. In some of them the form of government is democratic, but in most of them it is oligarchic: *the king of Prussia is nominally the sove-*

reign of Neufchatel, but his authority is merged in that of the confederative Diet. The Diet is composed of deputies from each of the cantons, and meets in rotation at Bern, Zurich, and Lucerne.

8. There are only two universities in Switzerland, one at Geneva, and one at Basel: but there are colleges or academies at Bern, Zurich, Lausanne, Schaffhausen, St. Gallen, Neufchatel, Chur, Friburg, and Lucerne. German is the prevailing language of the country, but French is spoken on the borders of France, Italian on the borders of Italy, and the Romanesk or *Romana rustica* in a part of the Grisons.

9. Switzerland was formerly divided into a number of petty states or principalities, each of which aspired to sovereignty; the inferior barons fortified themselves in castles and strong holds, and by their tyranny and feuds overwhelmed the whole country with faction and civil discord. At last, however, the foundation of the liberty of Switzerland was laid by William Tell; and the three mountainous cantons (or Waldstetten), Schweiz, Uri, and Unterwalden, were first formed into a confederacy, A. D. 1308. In the course of a few years these were joined by five other cantons, and in the beginning of the 16th century by five more, thus giving to the Helvetic Confederacy the form, by which it is known in history, viz. that of 13 cantons: they also entered into alliances with several neighbouring states, as the Grisons, St. Gallen, Valais, Geneva, and Tessin. During the dominion of the French, six more cantons were added to the confederacy; and after the overthrow of Napoleon, three others, so that their number now amounts to 22.

10. The names of these are given in the following table in the order in which they joined the federal body.

Cantons.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1821.
{ Schweiz - - -	Schweiz - - -	4,800
{ Uri - - -	Altorf - - -	2,000
{ Unterwalden - - -	Stanz - - -	2,200
{ Bern - - -	Bern - - -	17,000
{ Glarus - - -	Glarus - - -	3,800
{ Zurich - - -	Zurich - - -	10,500
{ Zug - - -	Zug - - -	2,400
{ Lucerne - - -	Lucerne - - -	5,500
{ Basel or Bale - - -	Basel - - -	15,700
{ Schaffhausen - - -	Schaffhausen - - -	6,500
{ Appenzell - - -	Appenzell - - -	2,000
{ Solothurn or Soleure - - -	Solothurn - - -	4,100
{ Friburg - - -	Friburg - - -	6,000

Cantons.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1821.
{ St. Gallen - - -	St. Gallen - - -	9,000
{ Vaud or Leman - -	Lausanne - - -	9,300
{ Grisons or Graubünden	Chur or Coire - - -	3,400
{ Thurgau or Thurgovie -	Frauenfeld - - -	1,800
{ Tessin or Ticino - -	Bellinzona - - -	1,500
{ Aargau or Argovie - -	Aarau - - -	3,300
{ Geneva - - -	Geneva - - -	23,000
{ Neuchâtel - - -	Neuchâtel - - -	4,800
{ Valais - - -	Sion - - -	4,000

11. The city of Geneva (or Genf as it is likewise called) is situated at the Western extremity of the lake of the same name, and upon the borders of France and the King of Sardinia's dominions: the R. Rhone, which here issues from the lake, receives on its left bank the waters of the R. Arve, and thus divides the city into three parts. Geneva is remarkable as having been long the residence of the reformer Calvin, many of whose manuscripts are still preserved in the public library there: its houses and buildings are unworthy of notice, its superiority over other places of Switzerland being of an intellectual nature.

12. Bern stands on a declivity near the banks of the R. Aare, which forms part of the town into a peninsula, and flows afterwards with a N. E. course past Solothurn and Aarau into the Rhine, about midway between Basel and Schaffhausen. Basel (or Bâle) is situated in the N. W. corner of the country, close upon the borders of France, and upon that part of the R. Rhine where it changes its direction from West to North; it is celebrated as having been for many years the residence of the learned Erasmus, who died there and lies buried in its cathedral. Schaffhausen is situated in the Northernmost part of the country, on the right bank of the Rhine and not far from its egress from the lake of Constance: it derives all its interest and importance from the magnificent cataract in the Rhine, called Laufen, which is about one league below it, and which though not the highest is in the mass of its waters the greatest and most famous in the whole of civilized Europe; the great fall is about 50 feet in depth.

13. Altorf, the capital of the canton of Uri has been rendered illustrious by the liberators of Switzerland; it was the birth-place of William Tell, and the spot formerly covered by the lime-tree where he shot at the apple on the head of his son is now occupied by a tower upon which his history is represented: it is situated near the entrance of the R. Reuss into the L. of Lucerne. The town of Lucerne is situated on the N. W. shores of the lake of the same name, at the spot where the R. Reuss issues from it: at no great distance

from it is Sempach where, in 1386, the Swiss obtained their famous victory over Leopold of Austria. Lausanne, the capital of the canton of Vaud (or Lemane) is a place of some celebrity delightfully situated about a mile to the N. of the lake of Geneva; it has been long celebrated for its academy, which has reckoned several distinguished scholars, such as Beza and Barbeyrac, amongst its teachers. The French Protestant clergymen were formerly educated here, until theological seminaries were opened for them at Strasburg and Montauban. Freyburg, the chief town of the canton of the same name, stands on the banks of the R. Saane which runs into the Aare; above it, near the banks of the same river is Gruyere so noted for its cheese. To the N. of Freyburg stands Morat (or Murten), upon the banks of a lake of the same name: it was here that the Swiss, A. D. 1476, gained their famous victory over Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy.

CHAPTER IX.

GERMANY.

1. GERMANY is bounded on the N. by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic Sea, on the E. by Poland and Hungary, on the S. by Italy and Switzerland, and on the W. by France, Belgium, and Holland. It is divided into thirty-nine sovereign and independent states, united in one great federative body governed by a Diet: but the internal government of each country composing the federate body, is, of course, regulated by its own laws, independent of the Diet. It contains about 198,400 square miles, and its estimated population in 1821 was 30,189,200 souls; excluding those territories belonging to Austria and Prussia which lie beyond the limits of the country, as well as the two Duchies of Holstein-and-Lauenburg and of Luxemburg, the former of which appertains to the Kingdom of Denmark, and the latter to the Kingdom of Holland.

2. THE PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS of Germany may be classed under three divisions. The first of these is the chain of the Alps, which traverses the whole Southern part of Germany. It quits Switzerland at the Eastern extremity of the canton of the Grisons, and winds its way through the Tyrol where it is called the Tyrolese

or Rhaetian Alps; some of its highest points here are the Ortler Spitz, the Brenner, and the Gross-Glockner.

3. Near this last mountain, on the borders of Salzburg, Carinthia, and the Tyrol, the great Alpine chain is divided into two ranges. The more Southern of these, under the names of the Carnic or Julian Alps (otherwise the Birnbaumerwald) and of Mt. Kapella, intersects Carniola, Croatia, and Dalmatia, on the borders of which last it enters Turkey. The second or Northern range traverses Salzburg, where it is called the Noric Alps; Styria, where it is called the Styrian and Wild Alps; and the province of Lower Austria, where it is called the Kahlenberg. Between Vienna and Presburg this range crosses the Danube, and trending to the N. E., under the names of Jablunka-berg and Kreutz-gebirge, connects itself with the Carpathian Mountains.

4. The second great range of mountains traverses the centre of Germany and is commonly distinguished as the Hercynian range. It is the continuation of the great ridge in France called the Vosges, which crosses the R. Rhine near Bingen; it thence trends Eastward through Hesse and Franconia, under the names of Die Höhe, Höhe Rhöne, and Frankenwald, and joins the lofty Fichtel-berg on the borders of Bavaria and Bohemia. There are two arms connected with this range, both striking off to the Northward. One of these, called the Vogelsberg and Teutoburgerwald, traverses Westphalia to the frontiers of Holland; it is likewise connected with the Westerwald which terminates on the Rhine opposite Bonn, where it is named the Siebenbergen or the Seven Mountains, one of which is the well-known Drachenfels. The other or more Eastern arm, called the Thuringerwald, intersects Thuringia and Lower Saxony, and terminates in the famous mountains of the Brocken and the Harz to the S. of Brunswick.

5. At the Fichtel-berg commences a circular chain of mountains completely enclosing the kingdom of Bohemia, and connecting itself on the E. with the great range of the Carpathians; it is known under the various names of the Erz-gebirge, Riesen-gebirge (or Giant

Mountains), Manhartsberg, and Böhmer-wald. The Carpathian Mountains (otherwise called Krapak) extend from the borders of Bohemia to Turkey, the frontiers of which last empire they form for some distance, and then crossing the R. Danube join Mt. Hæmus. They separate Moravia from Silesia; Hungary and Transylvania from the Bukovina, Galicia, Moldavia, and Walachia.

6. The third great division of the German mountains joins the other two, being connected towards the E. with the Fichtel-berg on the borders of Bohemia, and towards the N. with the ridge called Die Höhe near Bingen and Coblentz. It occupies parts of Swabia, the Lower Rhine, and Franconia, in the South Western corner of Germany, and forms two sides of a great triangle: the Western of these sides abuts on the R. Rhine, and is known under the names of the Oden-wald and Schwarz-wald (or Black-forest); the Southern side, commonly distinguished as the Rauhe Alpe (the rugged Alps), skirts the upper course of the R. Danube.

7. **PRINCIPAL RIVERS.** The Danube is the largest river in Germany and indeed in all Europe. It rises in the Black Forest on the borders of Swabia and Switzerland, and runs nearly due East till it reaches Buda in Hungary, when it turns suddenly to the Southward and continues running in this direction till it is joined by the R. Drave; hence it again pursues an Easterly course till it reaches Rassoza, where it curves round and enters the Black Sea by three mouths. Its total length is 1,700 miles. The chief Northern tributaries of the Danube are the March, the Waag, the Theiss, the Alt, the Sereth, and the Pruth: its chief Southern tributaries are the Iser, the Inn, the Raab, the Drave, the Save, and the Morava.

8. The Rhine has been already mentioned as rising in Mt. St. Gothard, and flowing thence through the L. of Constance, between Switzerland, Germany, France, and Holland, into the North-Sea: it is 737 miles long. Amongst its Eastern or German tributaries we may notice the Neckar which joins it at Manheim, the Mayn, the Lahn, the Sieg, the Ruhr, and the Lippe: of these *the Mayn (or Maine)*, which is by far the largest, rises

in the Fichtel-berg, and flows through the N. parts of Bavaria and Darmstadt past Frankfort-on-the-Mayn into the Rhine at Maynz (or Mayence).

9. To the E. of the Rhine and also running into the German Ocean follow successively the Ems, the Weser, and the Elbe. The first of these is much the smallest being only 210 miles from its source in the Teutoburger-Wald to its mouth at Emden. The Weser rises in the Thüringer-Wald, and flows with a Northerly course of 440 miles into the sea opposite the I. of Heligoland: its principal adjuncts are the Eder, the Fulda, the Werra, the Leine, and the Aller. The source of the Elbe is in the Giant Mountains, whence it pursues a N. W. course of 640 miles into the sea opposite Heligoland. Its chief tributaries are the Havel and Spree, the Elster, the Moldau, the Eger, the Mulda, and the Saale.

10. Farther Eastward are the rivers Oder and Vistula (or Weichsel), which both rise near each other in the Carpathian Mountains and empty themselves into the Baltic Sea; and beyond them again are the Pregel and the Neman. The length of the Oder is 503 miles; it flows through Silesia and Pomerania, past Frankfort-on-the-Oder and Stettin into the sea opposite the islands of Rugen and Bornholm: its chief tributaries are the Wartha, the Bartsch, the Bober, the Neisse, and the Spree. The length of the Vistula is 576 miles, which it pursues with a tortuous course past Krakau and Warsaw, through Poland and West Prussia into the Gulf of Dantzic; its principal adjunct is the Bug. The Pregel is about 200 miles long; it waters the province of East Prussia, and flows into the sea near Königsberg. The R. Neman (or Memel as it is likewise called) rises in European Russia near the town of Minsk, whence it flows with a N. W. course of 515 miles past Tilsit and through the Curische Haff into the Baltic at the town of Memel: this river formed for many years the boundary between Russia and Prussia.

11. CHIEF GULFS, LAKES, &c. The only inlets of Germany on the North Sea are, the estuary of the Weser between Oldenburg and Hanover, and the estuary of the Elbe between Hanover and Denmark. In the Baltic Sea we may mention the Gulf of Lubeck between Denmark and Mecklenburg, the Bays of Stralsund and Stettin at the W. extremity of Pomerania,

and the Gulf of Dantzic at the mouth of the Vistula. The Frische Haff is a kind of inland sea separated from the G. of Dantzic by a long narrow peninsula called the Frische Nehrung; and the Curische Haff is an inlet of the same kind farther Northward, which communicates with the sea at the town of Memel.

12. The principal lake in Germany is the L. of Constance, which has been already mentioned as partly in Switzerland. Besides this we may mention the lakes of Chiem, Wurm, and Ammer, in Bavaria; the Neusiedler See and Balaton or Platten See in Hungary; and those of Schwerin, Stettin, and Muritz, in Mecklenburg and Pomerania.

13. RELIGION. The forms of religion at present acknowledged by law in Germany, are the Roman Catholic, the Lutheran, and the Calvinistic: liberty of conscience, however, has been for a considerable time enjoyed in most of the states, the Congress of Vienna having adopted it as one of its leading principles. The Lutheran religion prevails in the Northern part of the country, the Roman Catholic in the Southern and some of the Western provinces, and the Calvinistic in the remainder of the Rhenish territory: there are likewise many Jews (for, in what kingdom of the Earth are they not to be found?), a small band of Herrnhuters or Moravian Brethren, and a few proselytes to the Greek Church. The proportion of Papists, Lutherans, and Calvinists, is estimated to be as fifteen, twelve, and two.

14. The Christian religion was not introduced into Germany before the eighth century, but that country had the honour of taking the lead in the Reformation, about A. D. 1517; prior to this latter period, the bishops, whilst they were possessed of enormous power and revenues, were buried in the profoundest ignorance, and the grossest wickedness and superstition. This new and important era in the history of Germany, which rescued not only it, but the whole Christian world from the foul idolatries of Popery, was introduced by Martin Luther, whose name can never be forgotten whilst any thing of principle remains that is deserving of remembrance. This great man was born at Eisleben in Saxony, in the year 1483: he spent the early years of his life in the most diligent study, and having passed some time in a convent of the Augustine friars, he assumed the habit, and took the vows, of that order, and was at length ordained a priest, when 24 years of age. His great and profound learning, the sanctity of his moral conduct, and his extensive acquaintance with the Holy Scriptures, were generally known and applauded; and in the following year, the Elector of Saxony, having founded a university at Wittenberg, appointed Luther to the professorship of philosophy, and afterwards to that of divinity.

15. This took place during the pontificate of Leo the 10th. The unbounded profusion of this pope in every object of expense, attached to a taste for luxurious magnificence, rendered it necessary to devise means for replenishing his exhausted treasury; and one of those which occurred, was

the sale of certain indulgencies which his apostate church claimed a right of dispensing from the store of her spiritual wealth. These indulgences pretended to convey to the possessor, either the pardon of his own sins, or the release from purgatory of any one already dead, in whose happiness he was interested. The commissaries appointed for this blasphemous traffic in Germany, executed their trust with such shameless and disgusting effrontery, and exaggerated the efficacy of their wares in such very extravagant terms, as gave great offence to those who were even ordinarily pious and thoughtful. At last, the iniquity of such proceedings roused the anger of Luther, a public preacher at Wittenberg, who felt himself insulted by such a system, and knew that his lessons of religion and morality could be valued but little, whilst the church, whose disciple he was, so openly encouraged the commission of the grossest vices.

16. Accordingly, in the year 1517, he attacked with all the vehemence in his power, from the pulpit in his great church, the vices of those very monks who dared openly to distribute indulgences; he tried their doctrines by the standard of Scripture, and exhorted his hearers to look for Salvation to the means appointed by God in his Holy Word. The boldness and fervour with which he uttered his exhortations, did not fail to make a deep and lasting impression on the people, who, suspecting the delusions to which they had been so long subject, were ready to join any person, especially one whose character for integrity stood so high as Luther's, in throwing off a yoke which they were scarcely able to bear. Still, as he enlarged his reading in order to support the tenets he had advanced, he discovered some new abuse or error in the church of Rome, and finding his opinions greedily hearkened to, he promulgated them by writing, discourses, and conferences, and thus daily increased the number of his disciples. The corrupt and bigoted monks, whose trade he had attacked, less anxious for the dissemination of the truth than for the profits which existing abuses afforded them, traduced his character with the greatest malignity, and endeavoured to excite the indignation of the populace against him. Luther, however, was not to be terrified; he found a large body of the people adhering to his doctrines, and he was content, in their behalf, to go through evil as well as good report; and he did not hesitate publicly to declare, that if the pope and cardinals entertained the same opinions with his opponents, and set up any authority against the Scriptures, there could be no doubt but that Rome itself was the very seat of antichrist, and that it would be happy for those countries which should separate themselves from her.

17. Thus commenced that glorious Reformation which roused men from the fatal lethargy and darkness in which they had so long been sleeping: and in a little time all Saxony, all Germany, all Europe, were filled with the voice of the wise and fearless Luther. He was summoned to Rome by the Pope to answer for his conduct, in the year 1518, but obtained permission to plead his cause at Augsburg: this cause admitted of no compromise, and he was accordingly excommunicated two years afterwards. He threw off his monastic habit A. D. 1524, and married in the following year. A diet was held at Spire A. D. 1529, at which a decree was passed, declaring it to be unlawful to introduce any change in the doctrine, discipline, or worship of the established religion, before the determinations of a general council were known. This decree was exceedingly revolting to the Elector of Saxony (Luther's faithful friend), and to many other princes, as well as to the deputies of 14 imperial cities, who, in a body, when they found their arguments and remonstrances of no avail, entered their solemn protest against it, on the 19th of April in the same year, appealing to the Emperor of Germany

and a future council. On this account they were distinguished by the name of *Protestants*, which, from this period has been applied to all sects, of whatever denomination they may be, who have separated themselves from the Romish church. Luther died A. D. 1546, in the 63d year of his age, and was buried at Wittenberg with the greatest honours.

18. **GOVERNMENT.** The total number of votes in the Diet is seventy, several of the States possessing two, three, or four votes, according to their population and their extent of territory. When fundamental laws are to be enacted, changes made in the existing rules of the confederation, measures adopted relative to the federative act itself, and organic institutions or other arrangements made for the common interest, the diet forms itself into a general assembly, in which each state votes individually, and where a majority of two-thirds is requisite to accomplish any change. But this political machinery being too unwieldy to be set in motion on every occasion of ordinary discussion, a further partition of votes has been agreed on, and the members of the Empire are commonly reckoned seventeen, several of the petty states having conjunctively but one vote; in these discussions a simple majority is decisive of a question. Austria presides at the Diet, and has a casting vote on all occasions when the votes are equally divided.

19. The Diet is permanent, but whenever the discussions for which it met, are concluded, it can adjourn to a fixed period not exceeding four months: its sittings are held at Frankfort-on-the-Maine. The states of the Confederation engage to defend each other, and the whole of Germany, against all attacks whatever, and mutually guarantee to each other the enjoyment of their federal possessions. When war is declared by the Confederation, no individual state can enter into negotiations with the enemy, nor make peace, nor an armistice, without the consent of the Diet. Each state reserves to itself the right of entering into such alliances as it thinks proper, but they bind themselves, at the same time, not to form any engagement to the detriment of the federal body, or of any member belonging to it. The several states likewise engage not to make war upon each other under any pretext whatever, and not to pursue their differences by force of arms, but to submit them to the Diet. The latter endeavours to bring about an arrangement by means of a commission; but in the event of this being unsuccessful, it pronounces judgment upon the parties, against which there is no appeal. The confederation possesses several important fortresses, the principal of which are Maynz, Luxemburg, Landau, Ulm, and Germersheim.

20. **FORMER POLITICAL DIVISIONS.** Before proceeding to describe the states into which Germany is at present divided, it will be found useful to take a retrospective view of its constitution, as it existed for several centuries prior to the present age. It consisted formerly of 300 states, large and small, governed by secular or ecclesiastical princes, each independent of the other, but subject to the emperor as the head of the great federal body

into which they were united, and to certain laws enacted at different times for the common advantage. Besides these, there were a number of free cities distributed over the country, and a class of nobles, chiefly in Swabia and the vicinity of the Rhine, who, without enjoying the title of princes, acknowledged no superior but the emperor. Almost all these states had a monarchial form of government, the free imperial cities excepted. One of the temporal princes enjoyed the rank of king, viz. the king of Bohemia (*i. e.* of Austria); the rest were dukes, landgraves, margraves, princes, counts, &c.: the ecclesiastical princes were archbishops, bishops, provosts, and abbots. The Emperor might be of any family, Roman Catholic or Lutheran: he was at first chosen by the princes at large; but, in course of time, they found it more convenient to depute their votes to certain representatives, called Electors, who eventually took upon themselves the nomination without the interference of their constituents. These Electors were nine in number, viz.

The Elector of Köln (or Cologne)	The Elector of Brunswick-Luneburg (or Hanover)
Triers (or Treves)	Brandenburg (or Prussia)
Maynz (or Mayence)	Saxony
The Palatinate	Bavaria
and Bohemia (or Austria).	

21. The emperor could not increase the number of electors, without the concurrence of the states: neither could he, without the consent of the latter, interfere in the laws of the empire, make war or peace, raise levies, impose taxes, alter the coinage, build forts, nor determine religious disputes. He was crowned at Frankfort, and enjoyed many privileges, such as granting titles to dukes, princes, counts, barons, pfalzgraves, &c., confirming universities in their privileges, giving fiefs, and deciding all disputes amongst the states concerning precedence. The title of emperor dated from Charlemagne, in 800; the rank was elective, and was enjoyed, at different periods, by distinct lines of princes; but Austria had the honour of possessing it after the year 1438. The government of the whole empire was vested in the emperor and the sovereigns of each separate state; and, for this purpose, an imperial convocation, called a Diet, was summoned. At this Diet, the states were divided into three imperial colleges: the first, called the electoral college, was composed of the electors; the second, styled the princely college, consisted of the princes of the empire, the imperial prelates, the imperial counts, and lords; the third, consisted formerly of fifty, but latterly of six, imperial cities. Each of these colleges assembled separately, and their decisions were carried by a majority of votes: a decree of all three, when ratified by the emperor, was called an imperial decree, and became the law of the whole confederation.

22. In so rapid a sketch as the present, it is not possible to enter into the details of the states composing this extensive empire, and this more especially, as it was at different times differently divided. But there is one partition of it, into thirteen great divisions, which is too frequently alluded to in history, to be past over in silence, although, generally speaking, it is now but little heard of. Nine of these great divisions were called Circles, four of which were in the Western, three in the central, and two in the Eastern, part of the country: the four Western were, 1. Westphalia, 2. Lower Rhine, 3. Upper Rhine, 4. Swabia; the three central were 5. Lower Saxony, 6. Franconia, 7. Bavaria; the two Eastern were, 8. Upper Saxony, 9. Austria. The four other great divisions, which did not bear the names of Circles, were likewise in the Eastern part of the country; their names were, 10. Bohemia,

11. Moravia, 12. Silesia, 13. Lusatia. On the breaking up of the old confederation, during the present century, a great number of the petty princes of the empire were deprived of their rights of sovereignty, such as the power of legislating for their diminutive states, levying troops, and appointing judges. From reigning sovereigns, these princes descended to the rank of nobles; and holding no longer *immediately* of the emperor, they were technically said to have become *mediatised*.

23. PRESENT POLITICAL DIVISIONS. We must now take a brief review of the States into which Germany is at present divided. In the North Western part of the country is the kingdom of Hanover, extending, in a general way, from Holland to the Elbe; the Grand Duchy of Oldenburg is surrounded on three sides by Hanover, being washed on the other by the sea: to the E. of the Elbe are the two Grand Duchies of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Strelitz. Beyond these last, in the North Eastern part of the country, is the kingdom of Prussia, extending beyond the limits of Germany, into what once formed a part of Poland: there is, likewise, a great portion of territory belonging to the king of Prussia, which is situated on the Rhine, and is hence distinguished as Rhine-Prussia; it lies between Holland and Belgium on the West, and Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, and Nassau, on the East.

24. The kingdom of Saxony is situated on the upper part of the Elbe, in the very heart of Germany. The empire of Austria, the most important of all the German States, occupies the South Eastern part of the country, beyond the limits of which it extends a very considerable way; it includes, besides its federal possessions, the kingdoms of Hungary, Galicia, Sclavonia, Croatia, Dalmatia, and Lombardy-Venice. In the South Western part of Germany are, the kingdom of Bavaria, the kingdom of Wurtemberg, the Grand Duchy of Baden, and the two little principalities of Hohenzollern.

25. The petty states of the confederation may be described as lying generally betwixt the Rhine, the Mayn, the Saale (which is a tributary of the Elbe), and the Weser, but more especially about the upper parts of these rivers: they are confined on the N. by Hanover, on the E. by Prussia and Saxony, on the S. by Bavaria and Baden, and on the W. by Rhine-Prussia; and,

unitedly, include about the same extent of territory as the kingdom of Hanover. The chief amongst these petty states are the Grand Duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, the Duchy of Nassau, the Electorate of Hesse-Cassel, the Grand Duchies of Saxe-Gotha and of Saxe-Weimar, and the Duchy of Brunswick.

26. Besides these little governments, there are the four free cities of Frankfort, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck, each of which has a vote in the German Diet: the three last are frequently called the *Hanse Towns*, from the old Teutonic word *Hansa*, signifying a *league*. This league was formed in the thirteenth century, by the chief commercial towns of Germany, in order to defend their property against the rapacity of the nobles, to secure their mutual independence, to clear the seas from pirates, and the highways from robbers. In the course of time, they were joined by various other cities and towns, till their number amounted to 64, and they were capable of conducting naval operations on a large scale. Lübeck was always considered the capital, or place of assembly for the deputies of the Hanseatic League: ordinary meetings were held once in three, and extraordinary meetings once in ten, years, to admit new members, and to transact the other business of the federal body.

27. The following table presents, at one view, the amount of territory of each state composing the German confederation, their population, number of votes at the Diet, their chief cities, and also the population of the latter. The two Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, and of Luxemburg, are added for the sake of preserving the unity of the body, although, as has been stated above, they form no part of Germany in the proper acceptance of the term.

Names of the States.	Territory in Sq. Miles.	Estimated Population in 1821.	Votes at the Diet	Chief Cities.	Estimated Population in 1821.
Anhalt-Bernburg, Duchy of -	218	37,000	1	Bernburg -	4,800
Anhalt-Cöthen, Duchy of -	202	32,500	1	Cöthen -	9,000
Anhalt-Dessau, Duchy of -	233	32,000	1	Dessau -	9,600
Austria, Emp. of (excluding her foreign territories)	60,300	9,382,200	4	Vienna -	270,000
Baden, Grand Duchy of -	4,350	1,000,000	3	Carlsruhe -	16,000
Bavaria, Kingdom of -	22,850	2,500,000	4	Munich -	63,000
Bremen, Town of -	63	48,500	1	Bremen -	38,000
Brunswick, Duchy of -	953	200,600	2	Brunswick -	32,000
Frankfort, Town of -	26	73,400	1	Frankfort -	60,000
Hamburg, Town of -	110	120,800	1	Hamburg -	115,000
Hanover, Kingdom of -	11,500	1,205,400	4	Hanover -	250,000

(continued)

Names of the States.	Territory in Sq. Miles.	Estimated Population in 1821.	Votes at the Diet.	Chief Cities.	Estimated Population in 1821.
Hesse-Cassel, Electorate of -	2,442	507,900	3	Cassel -	21,000
Hesse-Darmstadt, Gd. Dy. of -	2,285	619,500	3	Darmstadt -	15,000
Hesse-Homburg, Landg. of -	57	20,000	1	Homburg -	3,000
Hohenzollern-Hechingen, Principality of -	57	14,500	1	Hechingen -	2,000
Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, Principality of -	211	35,000	1	Sigmaringen -	800
Holstein and Lauenburg, Duchies of -	3,210	360,000	3	Gluckstadt -	5,200
Lichtenstein, Principality of -	74	5,500	1	Vaduz -	700
Lippe-Deimold, Py. of -	404	69,100	1	Deimold -	2,400
Lippe Schaumburg, Py. of -	133	24,000	1	Buckeburg -	2,100
Lubeck, Town of -	53	40,700	1	Lubeck -	26,500
Luxemburg, Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Grand Duchy of -	1,814	255,000	3	Luxemburg -	9,400
Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Grand Duchy of -	3,772	358,000	2	Schwerin -	10,200
Nassau, Duchy of -	578	71,800	1	Strelitz -	5,300
Oldenburg, Grand Duchy of Prussia, Km. of (excluding her foreign territories)	1,273	302,800	2	Wisbaden -	5,200
Reuss, Py. of (elder Branch) Reuss, Princip. of (younger Branches) -	1,730	217,800	1	Oldenburg -	5,100
Saxe-Coburg, Duchy of -	65,100	7,923,400	4	Berlin -	185,000
Saxe-Gotha, Duchy of -	81	22,300	1	Greiz -	6,200
Saxe-Hildburghausen, Dy. of -	242	52,200	1	Schleiz -	4,000
Saxe-Meinungen, Duchy of -	367	80,000	1	Coburg -	7,700
Saxe-Weimar, Gd. Dy. of -	990	185,700	1	Gotha -	11,000
Saxony, Kingdom of -	167	29,700	1	Hildburghausen -	3,000
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Principality of -	268	54,400	1	Meinungen -	4,200
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, Principality of -	888	201,000	1	Weimar -	8,500
Waldeck, Principality of -	4,400	1,200,000	4	Dresden -	50,000
Württemberg, Kingdom of -	320	53,000	1	Rudolstadt -	4,100
Totals -	172	45,100	1	Sondershausen -	3,100
	298	51,900	1	Corbach -	1,000
	6,170	1,395,500	4	Stuttgard -	27,000
Totals -	198,427	30,189,200	70		

28. The universities of Germany were formerly 30 (or rather 37) in number, but they are now only 21; of these, thirteen are Protestant, six Roman Catholic, and two partly Protestant and partly Roman Catholic. The total number of students at them is about 10,000; Göttingen being by far the most numerously attended, having nearly one eighth part of the whole.

29. The names of these Universities and those of the States to which they belong, are

Protestant.

Berlin, in Prussia.
Erlangen, in Bavaria.
Giessen, in Hesse-Darmstadt.

Roman Catholic.

Freyburg, in Baden.
Landshut, in Bavaria.
Paderborn, in Rhine-Prussia.

Protestant.	Roman Catholic.
Göttingen, in Hanover.	Prague, } in Austria.
Griesswalde, } in Prussia.	Vienna, }
Halle, }	Würzburg, in Bavaria.
Heidelberg, in Baden.	
Jena, in Saxe-Weimar.	
Kiel, in Holstein.	Protestant and Roman Catholic.
Leipsic, in Saxony.	
Marburg, in Hesse-Cassel.	
Rostock, in Mecklenburg-Schwerin.	Bonn, in Rhine-Prussia.
Tubingen, in Wurttemberg.	Breslau, in Prussia.

KINGDOM OF HANOVER.

30. The Kingdom of Hanover is bounded on the W. by the Kingdom of Holland, on the N. by the German Ocean and the R. Elbe, on the E. by this river and the Kingdom of Prussia, on the S. by the Duchy of Brunswick, and some other Petty States of the Confederation, and by Rhine-Prussia. It contains 11,500 square miles, and its population in 1821 amounted to 305,400 souls. The Lutheran is the prevailing religion in Hanover: but complete toleration is granted to all sects. Hanover is an hereditary kingdom dependant upon England, the succession to the crown being limited to the male line: it is governed by a Viceroy, who, in important affairs, receives his orders from the King, in London, where the Sovereign is assisted by a Hanoverian Council. The metropolis of the kingdom is also called Hanover, and is situated on the R. Leine, which is a tributary of the Weser.

31. Though Hanover has formed, for more than a century, a part of the British Empire, it has undergone no political incorporation with its great associate: indeed, there have been several instances of the same prince having made peace as Sovereign of Hanover, and continued at war as King of England. At the German Diet, the king of Hanover occupies the fifth rank, taking precedence of all other potentates, except Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, and Saxony. His power is not unlimited, but has a counterpoise in the states, which consist of the nobility, clergy, and deputies of the towns; and, without their consent, no tax can be levied, or new law made. Hanover is divided into seven provinces or governments, viz. Hanover, Hildesheim, Lüneburg, Stade, Osnabruck, Aurich, and Klausthal. To the S. of its metropolis and higher up the river Leine is Göttingen, famed for its university, which is one of the greatest ornaments of all Germany. To the N. E. of it is Goslar, situated near the famous mountain of the Harz; and the place where, it is pretended, the monk Berthold Schwartz, who lived in the 13th century, invented gunpowder. The other chief towns of Hanover are, *Klausthal, Lüneburg, Osnabruck, and Emden.*

KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA.

32. The Kingdom of Prussia is bounded on the W. by the electorate of Hesse-Cassel, the duchy of Brunswick, the kingdom of Hanover, and the two grand duchies of Mecklenburg; on the N. by the Baltic Sea; on the E. by the Kingdom of Poland; on the S. by the Empire of Austria, the Kingdom of Saxony, and some of the Petty States. This is the main body of the monarchy; but there is another portion of it in the Western part of Germany, extending on both sides of the Rhine, from Bingen, near Maynz, to the junction of the rivers Whaal and Leck: this portion of the Prussian territory, called Rhine-Prussia, touches to the N. upon the kingdom of Hanover, to the W. upon the kingdoms of Holland and Belgium, to the S. upon the kingdom of France, and the Duchy of Nassau, and to the E. upon several of the Petty States. The whole of the Prussian monarchy includes a superficial extent of 83,300 square miles; and a population (as estimated in 1821) of 9,668,100 souls.

33. The religion of the royal family, and of the majority of the population, is the Calvinistic; but Christians of all denominations are tolerated, and admitted on an equal footing to public employments. The government of Prussia is an hereditary monarchy. The king is assisted by a ministry or cabinet, much resembling that in our own country, but there is no representative assembly; he holds the second rank at the German Diet. Berlin, the metropolis of Prussia, and one of the most beautiful cities in Europe, is situated on the Spree, which is a small river falling into the Havel and so joining the Elbe. It is the seat of government, and the residence of the king, who, however, occasionally retires to his palace at Potsdam, a few miles to the W. of Berlin, on the R. Havel.

34. The kingdom of Prussia is divided into 10 provinces, seven of which appertain to the main body of territory, and three to the disjointed part lying along the Rhine. The names of these provinces, together with their chief

s and towns, and the population of the latter, may be seen in the following table :

Provinces.		Cities or Towns.	Estimated Population in 1821.
Main Territory :	East or Ducal Prussia - -	Koenigsberg - -	61,000
	West Prussia - - -	Dantzic - - -	54,000
	Pomerania - - -	Stettin - - -	25,000
	Posen - - -	Posen - - -	19,000
	Silesia - - -	Breslau - - -	78,000
	Brandenburg - - -	Berlin - - -	185,000
Rhenish Territory :	Saxony - - -	Magdeburg - -	37,000
	Westphalia - - -	Munster - - -	18,000
	Juliers, Cleves, and Berg	Cologne or Koeln -	54,000
	Lower Rhine - - -	Aix-la-Chapelle -	27,000

4. Besides these, Prussia possesses some small disjointed portions of territory, which are intermixed with the Petty States of the Confederation, all as the nominal sovereignty of Neufchatel, although the latter is acknowledged as a Swiss canton by the United Great Powers of Europe and treated accordingly. The year 1817 (the 300th anniversary of the Reformation) was remarkable for the union of the Calvinists and Lutherans of Prussian dominions, and of some other parts of Germany, into one religious community, under the name of Evangelical Christians.

5. The opulent and commercial city of Dantzic is situated in West Prussia, on the left bank of the R. Vistula and about four miles from its mouth: it is said to have been founded by a Danish colony in the 12th century, and to have been originally called Dans-vick. The chief branch of trade consists in the exportation of corn from Prussia and Poland. Dantzic has given name to the Gulf of Dantzic, which is an inlet of the Baltic Sea at the mouth of the R. Vistula. On the N. E. shores of this gulf, at the mouth of the R. Pregel, stands Koenigsberg another great trading city, remarkable as having given birth to Frederick III. who was here crowned King of Prussia with great pomp: it is likewise remarkable for its industry, where the arts and sciences have long been successfully cultivated. On the N. E. of this is the town of Tilsit, situated on the banks of the R. Memel and its tributary the Tilse: it contains 12,000 inhabitants, and is remarkable for the interview which took place there between Bonaparte and Emperor Alexander, and for the two treaties of peace which were signed there afterwards, one between Russia and France, the other between Russia and Prussia.

6. Breslau, the capital of Silesia, is situated on the left bank of the R. Oder, and is one of the most flourishing cities in this part of Europe; it contains a mixed university for Protestants and Roman Catholics, and carries on an extensive trade in linen and wool. It is well fortified and has suffered from severe sieges from the Austrians and others. Frankfort-on-the-Oder is considerably lower down the river, to the E. of Berlin; it contains about 30,000 inhabitants, and must not be confounded with its important namesake Frankfort-on-the-Mayn. The town of Brandenburg, containing 13,000

inhabitants, lies to the W. of Berlin upon the banks of the R. Havel; and to the S. W. of it, on the R. Elbe, stands the important town Magdeburg, one of the strongest fortresses in all Germany. Higher up the Elbe is Wittenberg, so interesting as the cradle of the Reformation; Luther and his milder associate Melancthon are buried in the university-church here, and their tombs are pointed out by simple inscriptions. Halle lies to the S. of Magdeburg on the banks of the R. Saale, and contains a Protestant university, which has always enjoyed a high literary reputation.

38 Cologne (or Kœln), the chief city of Rhine-Prussia, is situated on the West or left bank of the Rhine, and is one of the most important places in this part of Germany; to the West of it on the frontiers of Belgium lies Aix-la-Chapelle (or Aachen) so famous for its mineral waters and for the treaties of peace which have been signed there. Both these places are remarkable for the pretended relics which are shown there; those of Aix-la-Chapelle in particular being publicly exhibited every seventh year, draw numbers of sick sufferers and of superstitious idlers to be deluded by the monstrous display. Aix-la-Chapelle contains 28,000 inhabitants, and is noted as having been for some time the favourite residence of Charlemagne and the capital of his empire, on which account it was long customary to solemnize the coronation of the Emperors of Germany in this town; the imperial regalia and arms of Charlemagne as well as his tomb are still shown here. Farther S. stands Coblenz, likewise on the left bank of the Rhine where it is joined by the R. Moselle: opposite to it, on the Eastern side of the Rhine, rises the lofty rock of Ehrenbreitstein, whose natural strength has been so increased by art that it may be considered as almost impregnable.

KINGDOM OF SAXONY.

39. The Kingdom of Saxony is bounded on the N. and E. by the kingdom of Prussia, on the S. by the Austrian Empire, and on the W. by some of the Petty States of the Confederation. It contains 4,400 square miles of territory, and its population in 1821 amounted to 1,200,000 souls. Formerly it was a much larger and more important kingdom, but was reduced by the Treaty of Paris to its present dimensions. Saxony is the birth-place of the Reformation, and, therefore, the great majority of its population is Lutheran; but the reigning family have been Catholics for the last 130 years, one of its members having abjured the reformed creed to obtain the crown of Poland. The government of Saxony is monarchical, but the king shares the legislative power with the states; these are divided into two houses, the nobility and clergy in one, and the deputies of the provinces and towns in the other. Dresden, the metropolis of the kingdom and the residence of the king, is beautifully situated on the R. Elbe, at its junction with the

eisseritz. The language which is spoken in Dresden is indeed throughout Saxony, is reckoned the most pure and correct of all the dialects of Germany.

40. The King of Saxony holds the fourth rank in the Germanic confederation. His kingdom is divided into the five circles or provinces of Meissen, Silesia, Erzgebirge, Vogtland, and Lusatia. To the N. W. of Dresden, on the borders of the Prussian province of Saxony, is Leipsic, so famous for the dreadful battle fought near it, A. D. 1813, which delivered Germany from the tyranny of Bonaparte: it is situated near the junction of the two little rivers, Pleisse and Elster, which run into the Saale and so into the Elbe. It is the chief commercial city in the interior of Germany, being the great mart for the literature of the country; its *fairs* are attended by an immense concourse of people, from all nations, but, in these, it is rivalled by Frankfort, already described as one of the towns connected, in a manner, with the Hanseatic league.

EMPIRE OF AUSTRIA.

41. The Empire of Austria is bounded on the N. by the kingdoms of Saxony and Prussia, and the empire of Russia; on the E. by the latter country and by the empire of Turkey; on the S. likewise by Turkey, by the Adriatic Sea, and the Italian States to the S. of the Adriatic; on the W. by the Republic of Switzerland and the kingdom of Bavaria. These limits include the whole of Austria and its foreign possessions, and comprehend a territory of 7,000 square miles, the population of which was estimated, in 1821, at 28,701,100 souls. The German part of its territory does not contain one third either of this area or population. The established religion is the Roman Catholic, but general toleration is granted, and members of the Protestant and Greek churches are numerous in Hungary, Transylvania, and Sclavonia. The government of Austria is an hereditary monarchy, absolute in the greater part of the provinces, but modified in others: the Emperor, who is at the head of it, unites in himself all the rights of unlimited sovereignty, excepting such as he shares with the representatives of Hungary, Poland, and a few other provinces.

42. The Empire of Austria is divided into 15 great provinces or states; viz. six in Germany, six in Hungary, two in Galicia, and one in Italy. The German states include the Archduchy of Austria, the Kingdoms of Bohemia and Illyria, the Principality of Tyrol, the margravate of Moravia, and the Duchy of Styria. The

Hungarian States comprise the Kingdoms of Hungary, Slavonia, Croatia, and Dalmatia, the Principality of Transylvania, and the government of The Military-gränze. The Galician States are the Kingdom of Galicia and the Government of Bukovina. The only Italian State is the Kingdom of Lombardy-Venice.

43. The administration of the whole empire centres in Vienna, and is composed of a number of boards, under the names of councils, chanceries, and conferences. The Emperor of Austria presides at the German Diet. Vienna (or Wien, as it is called by the Germans), the great metropolis of his dominions, is situated on the S. side of the Danube, about two miles from it, and at the junction of the two little rivers Wien and Alser: it is one of the most beautiful cities in Europe, and is remarkable for the gaiety and sprightliness of its inhabitants. It is the usual residence of the Emperor, who, however, has a favourite palace at Schönbrunn to the West of the city, whither he frequently retires.

44. The names of the great Austrian provinces, together with their chief cities, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

	Provinces.	Chief Cities.	Estimated Population in 1831.
German States:	Archduchy of Austria, including Upper and Lower Austria, and Salzburg	Vienna	270,000
	Kingdom of Bohemia	Prague	84,000
	Margravate of Moravia, including Austrian Silesia	Bruun	80,000
	Duchy of Styria	Grätz	30,000
	Principality of Tyrol, including Vorarlberg	Innsbruck	10,000
	Kingdom of Illyria, including Carinthia, Carniola, Laybach, and Trieste	Trieste	26,000
Hungarian States:	Kingdom of Hungary	Buda and Pest	85,000
	Kingdom of Slavonia	Esseg	9,000
	Principality of Transylvania	Hermanstadt	18,000
	Kingdom of Croatia	Agram	17,000
	Kingdom of Dalmatia	Zara	8,000
	The Military Bounds (Military-gränze)	Peterwardein	4,000

Provinces.	Chief Cities.	Estimated Population in 1831.
Kingdom of Galicia - -	Lemberg - -	45,000
Bukovina - - - -	Czernowitz - -	6,000
Kingdom of Lombardy-Venice, including Lombardy (or the Milanese), with the Valtellina and Venice - -	Milan - - -	138,000

The ancient city of Prague, the capital of Bohemia, stands on the bank of the Moldau, and is celebrated for its university, which is the oldest in Germany: it has been frequently exposed to the calamities of war, particularly in the 15th century, during the persecution of John Huss and his followers, whose opposition to the pretensions of the Church of Rome, however well founded, was premature for the age in which they lived. Presburg is situated on the Northern bank of the Danube, about 30 miles to the E. of Vienna; it was declared the capital of Hungary about 300 years ago, and the walls are still crowned here, though Buda is now the seat of government. Another city (called Ofen by the natives) likewise stands on the Danube, on its right bank; opposite to it is the city of Pest, with which it is connected by a bridge of boats: Buda is the residence of the Viceroy, but Pest is the seat of the high courts of justice, and the place of meeting for the Diet. Trieste is situated at the head of the Adriatic, and possesses considerable importance from its being the only sea-port of any consequence for the whole extent of the Austrian dominions from Tyrol to Transylvania: although entitled to all the privileges of an Austrian sea-port since 1814, from its distance and situation, interfere with the trade of Trieste.

The city of Venice is likewise situated at the head of the Adriatic; which, from it, is now generally called the Gulf of Venice; it is built on a collection of small islands, reputed 72 in number, separated from the mainland by shallows from 6 to 8 feet deep: this position in the midst of the sea, gives it a singular appearance at a distance, its domes, spires, towers, and public buildings, appearing to the spectator to float on the face of the waves. It was founded A. D. 421, and was formerly the seat of a very powerful republic. The government, which was at first aristocratic, became in 1247 a settled aristocracy, the chief officer bearing the title of Doge. It was for some time the most commercial city in the world, and public banks were first adopted here; but it has now lost all its importance, and presents but a melancholy shadow of its former magnificence; its population, in 1821, was estimated at 110,000. In 1797, the Venetian territories were annexed to the crown of Austria, whose possessions in Italy are now known by the name of the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom, from its great component parts, Lombardy and Venice.

The name of Lombardy, though properly applicable only to the Vale of the Po, is commonly given to the whole tract of country lying between the Alps and the Apennines, from the frontiers of Switzerland to Tuscany. It corresponds in a great measure with the Gallia Cisalpina of the Romans, derived its name from the Lombards, who conquered it in the sixth century, and retained it under the form of a kingdom till the eighth: it comprehends the province of Milan, the Duchies of Parma and Modena,

together with parts of Piedmont, Venice, and the Papal States, but of late years the name has been more especially applied to the province of Milan alone. The city of Milan, the metropolis of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom is situated on the R. Olona, near its junction with the Southern Lambro; its cathedral is reckoned the grandest and most imposing specimen of gothic architecture existing, and next to St. Peter's of Rome, and St. Paul's of London, is the finest church in Europe.

KINGDOM OF BAVARIA.

48. The Kingdom of Bavaria is bounded on the E. and S. by the empire of Austria, on the W. by the kingdom of Wurtemberg and the Grand Duchies of Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt, and on the N. by several of the Petty States of the Confederation. It contains 22,850 square miles, and its population in 1821 amounted to 3,560,000 souls.

49. The established religion of Bavaria is the Roman Catholic, but all sects have free toleration. The government of the country is a constitutional monarchy, hereditary in the male line. The parliament is composed of two houses; the first of which consists of the Royal family, the great officers of state, the superior clergy, and the *mediatised* nobles; these are called the counsellors of the realm: the other house is composed of deputies from the body of the people. Munich, or München as the Germans call it, the metropolis of Bavaria and celebrated for its cultivation of the liberal sciences, stands on the banks of the R. Iser, which is a tributary of the Danube: it is the seat of government and the residence of the king, who has also a favourite palace near the city, named Nymphenburg.

50. The king of Bavaria takes the third rank in the German Diet. His kingdom is divided into eight circles or provinces, the names of which, together with their chief cities, and the population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

Provinces.	Chief Cities.	Estimated Population in 1821.
Isar - - - -	Munich - - - -	63,000
Lower Danube - - - -	Passau - - - -	11,000
Regen - - - -	Regensburg - - - -	24,000
Upper Danube - - - -	Augsburg - - - -	33,000
Rezat - - - -	Anspach - - - -	15,000
Upper Mayn - - - -	Bayreuth - - - -	11,000
Lower Mayn - - - -	Wurzburg - - - -	21,000
Rhine - - - -	Speyer - - - -	6,000

Kingdom of Wurtemberg—Free Cities. 123

61. The last of these provinces is disjointed from the main body of the German territory; it lies to the W. of the Rhine, and borders upon France, the Prussia, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt. Its chief town, Speyer, or as it is frequently called, is situated on the Rhine, and is chiefly noted from its having been frequently the seat of the old German Diet. Speyer, known also by the name of Ratisbon, is situated on the S. bank of the Danube, and is remarkable as having been the place of assembly for the Diet of Germany from 1662 till the extinction of that body in 1805. Speyerburg situated to the W. of Munich, at the confluence of the two rivers Isar and Wertach which run Northwards into the Danube, is a very important city and was formerly free and imperial; it is rendered important by its literature, especially on subjects connected with the Roman Catholic religion, and by its extensive inland commerce. It has frequently suffered from the horrors of war, but is better known from the famous Confession of Faith, called the Augsburg Confession, which was there presented by the Protestants A. D. 1530 to Charles the Fifth.

KINGDOM OF WURTEMBERG.

62. The Kingdom of Wurtemberg is bounded on the E. by the kingdom of Bavaria, on the S. by the republic of Switzerland and the grand duchy of Baden, on the W. and N. likewise by the latter state: it nearly surrounds the two principalities of Hohenzollern. It contains 6,170 square miles, and its population in 1821 amounted to 1,395,500 souls. The majority of the people profess the Lutheran religion, but all sects are tolerated. The government of the country is a constitutional monarchy; the executive power is vested in the king, controlled by a representative body.

63. Wurtemberg is divided into four circles or provinces, the names and chief towns of which, with the population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1821.
Neckar - - - -	Stuttgart - - - -	27,600
Schwarzwald - - - -	Reutlingen - - - -	8,000
Jaxt - - - -	Elwangen - - - -	2,500
Danube - - - -	Ulm - - - -	11,000

The king holds the 6th place in the German Diet. Stuttgart, the metropolis of the kingdom, stands on the banks of the Nisselbach, not far from its junction with the Neckar; it is the seat of government, and the residence of the king. Higher up the Neckar is Tübingen, famed, as well as Stuttgart, for its cultivation of literature and the fine arts.

FREE CITIES.

64. Hamburg, the greatest commercial city in Germany, stands on the right or N. bank of the Elbe, where it is joined by the two small rivers Alster and Bille; it was formerly celebrated for its various admirable manufactures,

but it has exchanged this character for a mercantile one, its inhabitants being now mostly employed in buying and selling the products of other countries. The established religion of Hamburg is the Latheran, but complete toleration prevails. The government is an aristocracy consisting of 28 senators who receive an annual salary, and constitute the executive power; these are checked by the citizens at large represented by delegates, who adopt or reject laws which the senate alone has the right to propose. The dignity of the senators is not hereditary, and though they elect themselves, they do this generally in concurrence with the public wish. The city of Hamburg contains about 115,000 inhabitants. Cuxhaven is a small town belonging to Hamburg, situated on the Northernmost point of Hanover, on the shores of the German Ocean and close to the mouth of the Elbe; it has a large and commodious harbour, which is resorted to in cases of danger, and it is here that vessels take in pilots when ascending the river to Hamburg.

55. Bremen is a fortified town on the R. Weser about 35 miles from its mouth, and on both banks of the river: its maritime commerce is extensive, although owing to the shallowness of the water, boats alone can approach the town; its harbour is at a place called Elfsleth about 12 miles lower down the Weser. The Calvinistic is the established religion, but many Lutherans inhabit the town and are eligible to public offices. The government is nearly the same as that of Hamburg.—Lubeck is situated on the frontiers of Holstein and Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and partly touches upon the Baltic Sea. Its capital of the same name stands on the banks of the R. Trave, about 8 miles from the sea, and is likewise washed by the rivers Wackenitz and Steknitz. It was formerly a place of great strength, but most of its fortifications have been destroyed. The inhabitants are Lutherans and Calvinists, but there are likewise many Roman Catholics and Jews. The government is partly aristocratical and partly democratical. Frankfort, now the permanent seat of the German Diet, is situated on the R. Mayn about 18 miles above its confluence with the Rhine, and is one of the most commercial cities in the whole of Germany; it has two annual fairs at which a considerable trade in books was carried on until Leipsic was fixed on for that purpose; it contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom more than one fifth are Jews. The constitution of Frankfort is a mixture of aristocracy and democracy, affording a perfect equality to the different denominations of Christians, and a final appeal in state differences to the German Diet.

CHAPTER X.

KINGDOM OF DENMARK.

1. THE kingdom of Denmark is bounded on the W. by the German Ocean; on the N. by the Skager Rack; on the E. by the Cattegat, the Sound, the Baltic Sea, and by an imaginary line drawn from Travemunde on

At last, to Lauenburg on the R. Elbe, which river runs, in a general way, the Southern boundary of the country, and nearly separates it from the mainland of Germany. It touches to the S. E. upon the Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg Schwerin, to the S. and S. W. upon the kingdom of Hanover.

2. Denmark consists of the islands Sieland, Funen, Zealand, Falster, Bornholm, the Ferroe Islands, and some others of little consequence, and of an extensive personese or peninsula, containing the provinces of Jutland, Sleswig (or Southern Jutland, as it is sometimes called), Holstein, and Lauenburg. This peninsula is about 260 miles long, and, on an average, about 60 broad. It contains a superficial extent of 18,250 square miles; and, according to the census taken in 1828, 937,160 inhabitants.

3. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. Continental Denmark forms a long continued plain, the surface of which is scarcely interrupted even by gentle rising grounds: the insular part of the kingdom is also remarkably flat. Its rivers, likewise, are very inconsiderable, and may be better described under the terms rivulets and brooks. The chief of them are, the Guden, the Skierne, the Eidsa, the Brede, the Wid, the Scholm, the Trave, and the Eyder. The last mentioned is the only one of any consequence; it separates the Duchies of Holstein and Sleswig, and connects the German Ocean with the Baltic Sea. The famous R. Elbe washes the whole Southern part of Holstein, but it is a German and not a Danish river.

4. There are many considerable lakes (or *fjords* as the Danes call them) scattered over the whole of Denmark. By far the largest amongst these is the Liim Fiord, which intersects the Northern part of Jutland from sea to sea with the exception of a narrow mound by which it is separated from the German Ocean. Besides these we may mention the lakes of Nissum, Ringkøbing, and Fiel, on the Western coast of Jutland; those of Flensborg and Schley on the Eastern coast of Sleswig; the Odensee in the N. of Fyen; and the Ise and Ræskilde in the N. of Sieland.

5. The chief capes are The Skaw or Skagens Odde, the Northern extremity of the kingdom; the Horn one of its most Western points; and Förs Næs, the Easternmost part of Jutland. The principal bays are, the Bay of Husum on the Western coast of Sleswig; the Gulf of Randers, and the Bays of Aarhus, Horsens, and Veile, on the Eastern coast of Jutland; the Bays of Haderslev, Aabenraa, and Ekkern, on the Eastern coast of Sleswig; Kolberg Bay and the G. of Lubeck on the N. coast of Holstein; and Klog Bay on the Eastern coast of Sieland.

6. Denmark has already been stated to be separated from the kingdom of Sweden by the channels or straits called the Skager Rack and Cattegat, the latter communicating with the Baltic Sea by means of three smaller channels named the Sound, the Great Belt, and the Little Belt. The Sound lies between the mainland of Sweden and the Danish island of Sieland, and it is on this channel that the city of Copenhagen is situated; all ships passing through it to and fro from the Baltic pay a toll to the Danes at the town of Elsinore, which is situated at the N. E. extremity of the I. of Sieland. The Great Belt lies between the two islands Sieland and Funen; ships passing through it pay toll at the town of Nyeborg on the Eastern coast of the latter island. The Little Belt is between the island of Funen and the mainland of Denmark; the toll is collected from ships which pass through it at the town of Frideicia at the S. E. extremity of the province of Jutland.

7. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The established religion of Denmark is Lutheranism, but there exists at present complete toleration. The government is an absolute monarchy of the most unqualified kind; but the exercise of this power has been modified by the spirit of the age, the effect of the Protestant religion, and the progressive advance of improvement.

8. In the times of heathenism, the Danes performed religious worship in honour of the idols Freyer, Thor, Thyr, Odin, and Freya, and four days in the week still retain the names of the four last mentioned; the chief of these deities was Odin. In the middle ages, several attempts were made, with little success, to convert the Danes to Christianity; and churches were founded in several parts of the kingdom. Having patiently endured rigorous treatment and persecution, the clergy at length obtained a free toleration; and, in 1537, the doctrine of the gospel was decreed to be the established religion in Denmark. The Danish monarchy was originally elective, and great power was possessed by the nobility, till the year 1660, *when the clergy and commons, disgusted with the tyrannical and oppressive behaviour of the latter estate, and discontented with an unfavourable treaty*

forced on them by Sweden, made an offer of their lives, liberties, and properties, to the king. The clergy and commons, having thus surrendered their own rights to the crown, and conferred absolute power on the sovereign, the nobility were obliged to make a similar surrender, or to involve their country in a civil war: they chose the former alternative.

9. Towards the end of the fourteenth century, the famous Margaret united the three great crowns of the North, having obtained Norway by inheritance, and Sweden by cession and conquest: Sweden separated itself in 1523, but Norway remained united with Denmark, first as a province, and afterwards as an independent kingdom. In the middle of the fifteenth century, the two important provinces of Sleswig and Holstein became annexed to the Crown of Denmark, from Count Christian of Oldenburg succeeding to the throne, in consequence of the reigning family having become extinct. At the close of the war, in 1814, Denmark lost the possession of Norway, for which country she received Swedish Pomerania as an ostensible equivalent; but she soon afterwards exchanged the latter with Prussia, for the province, or rather a part of the province of Lauenburg, together with a sum of money.

10. The provinces which constitute the kingdom of Denmark, together with their chief cities and towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

	Provinces.	Islands.	Cities and Towns.	Population.
DENMARK PROPER:	Sjælland -	Sjælland -	Copenhagen -	104,000
		-	Elsinore -	7,000
		Moen -	Steenge -	1,000
		Bornholm -	Rønne -	2,500
	Funen or Fionia	Stromøel -	Thorshavn -	1,500
		Funen or Fyen -	Odensée -	7,000
		Langland -	Rudkøbing -	1,200
	Laaland -	Laaland -	Mariboe -	2,000
		Falster -	Nykøbing -	1,000
JUT. LAND.	Aalborg -	-	Aalborg -	6,500
	Viborg -	-	Viborg -	5,000
	Aarhus -	-	Aarhus -	6,000
	Ripen or Ribe -	-	Ripen or Ribe -	2,000
SLES- WIG:	Sleswig -	-	Sleswig -	8,000
		-	Flensborg -	16,000
	or Southern Jutland	Alsén -	Sonderburg -	2,500
		Femeren -	Burg -	1,500
GERMAN PROVINCES:	Holstein -	-	Gluckstadt -	5,000
		-	Kiel -	7,000
		-	Altona or Altena -	24,000
	Lauenburg -	-	Ratzeburg -	2,000
		-	Lauenburg -	2,500

11. Copenhagen, or Kiøbenhavn (*i. e.* Merchants' Harbour) as the natives call it, the metropolis of Den-

mark, is a large, well-built, fortified, and commercial city, about six miles in circuit, situated on the Eastern coast of the I. of Sieland, near the Southern extremity of that narrow channel of the Baltic, called the Sound. It is little more than ten miles from the opposite shores of Sweden, and about twice that distance from the Northern, and narrowest part of the Sound. In the eleventh century it was a mean fishing village; but towards the middle of the fifteenth century, having been greatly enlarged, it became the capital of the country. It is not only the residence of the court, but the seat of all the great public establishments of the kingdom; amongst others, it possesses a university, where the arts and sciences are cultivated with some diligence; but it bears in its plan the traces of an unlettered age and country. Twenty-two miles to the N. of Copenhagen, at the entrance of the Sound, is the sea-port and fortress of Elsinore.

12. The northern extremity of the Danish peninsula, is called Skagerrack, or sometimes the Skaw, and from it the great sandbank, named the Skagerrack, extends a long way into the sea: on this promontory there is a tower 64 feet high, on which, during winter, a fire is kept burning all night for the safety of mariners. Some distance to the South of it is Aalborg, situated on the Southern shore of the Liim Fiord; it is the capital of Jutland, and the most important place in Denmark after Copenhagen and Odense. Viborg, farther South, is remarkable as the place where the states of Jutland used formerly to hold their diets, and pay homage to the sovereign; it was here that, A. D. 1528, the reformation was begun in Denmark. Still lower down is Aarhus on the Eastern coast of Jutland and near the Northern extremity of the Great Belt; it enjoys a good trade and is the chief point of communication between the mainland and the I. of Sieland.

13. Flensburg, one of the most flourishing cities of the kingdom, stands on the Eastern coast of the Duchy of Sleswig; it owes much of its importance to its harbour, which though difficult of access will admit the largest vessels close to its quays. Sleswig (or Schleswig as it is also written) is situated in the S. E. part of the duchy to which it has given name, at the extremity of the fiord called Schley; it is a place of some commercial importance, and is the seat of government of the two duchies Sleswig and Holstein: in one of its churches is the tomb of Frederick the 1st. To the S. of it on the banks of the R. Eyder, stands the small town Rendsborg, which is partly in Sleswig and partly in Holstein: and to the E. of this, near the mouth of the Eyder is Kiel, the seat of a university, and the great point of communication with Copenhagen and Hamburg.

14. Gluckstadt is situated at the mouth of the R. Elbe, on the S. W. coast of Holstein, and is of importance to Denmark as it commands in a considerable degree the approach to Hamburg and Altona; it is the seat of the chief magistrates of Holstein, and takes an active part in the Greenland fisheries. Higher up the Elbe, about two miles to the W. of Hamburg,

da Altona, by far the most populous place in the Danish peninsula; it formerly merely a village, but of late years its prosperity has so rapidly increased, that in manufactures and commerce it affects a kind of rivalry with Hamburg: one of the principal employments followed by its inhabitants is ship-building. Odensee, the capital of the I. of Funen, is situated on its northern coast, and is the residence of the chief magistrate of the island; yet not large, it is a town of considerable note both for the good education of its inhabitants and for its manufactures. It is farther remarkable as the place where the Danish language is spoken in its greatest purity; for the diet at which, in 1528, the discipline of the Danish church was settled after the Reformation.

15. To the West of Denmark, about 40 miles from the mouths of the Eyder, Elbe, and Weser, is Heligoland or Holy Island, formerly belonging to the Danes, now to the English. The Ferroe or Faroe Islands, which likewise belong to Denmark, lie in the Atlantic ocean, about midway between Scotland and Iceland: they are 180 miles N. W. of C. Wrath in Scotland, and at the same distance from the Shetland Isles. They occupy a space of about 60 miles in length, by 40 in breadth, being 25 in number, of which 17 are inhabited: the language differs but little from the Icelandic. They contain 5,500 inhabitants.

16. The other Danish possessions are, Tranquebar, on the coast of Coromandel, in India; Axim, Aquidah, Christiansburg, and a few other forts on the coast of Guinea, in Africa; Iceland, Greenland, and three of the West India Islands (viz. St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Cruz), in America. The superficial extent of the Danish monarchy amounts to about 700,000 square miles; its population, in 1828, was estimated at 2,125,000 souls.

CHAPTER XI.

KINGDOM OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

1. THIS vast peninsula comprehends 220,800 square miles, and is estimated to contain about 3,775,000 inhabitants. It is separated from Russia, on the N. E., by the little rivers *Tornea*, *Muonio*, and *Tana*, the two

first of which run into the Gulf of Botnia, and the latter into the Arctic Ocean. Its Eastern shores are washed by the Gulf of Botnia and the Baltic Sea; its Western by the North Sea; and its Southern, by a narrow Strait separating the two last bodies of water, and dividing the Scandinavian peninsula from the kingdom of Denmark. The North Western part of this strait is called the Skager Rack, the central part the Cattegat, and the Southern the Sound: this last is by far the narrowest, being little more than three miles across, from Helsingborg in Sweden, to Elsinore in Denmark, between which places there is a common ferry. The greatest length of the Scandinavian peninsula is 1,020 miles, and its average breadth about 300.

2. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. There is a lofty range of mountains completely traversing the Western part of the country, from the promontory called The Naze, which is the Southernmost point of Norway, to the North Cape, which is its Northern extremity. This range, the only one of any consequence in the whole peninsula, forms the natural division between Sweden and Norway, although two of the provinces belonging to the latter (Aggershuus and Christiansand) lie to the East of it. It likewise divides the rivers of the country into two classes, those which run Westward into the North Sea, and those which run Eastward and Southward into the Gulf of Botnia, the Baltic Sea, and The Straits. This range is in a general way called Koelen or Fiell, but it has also other names in different portions of its extent, as Langfield, Kiöell, and Dofrefield. It throws out several branches to the S. E., but these are comparatively low. Amongst the highest points may be enumerated Skagstoll-Tind, Syltoppen, Sneattan, Sulitellma, and Skulaberg.

3. The rivers of Sweden and Norway are of a secondary size, but they are notwithstanding very deep; in winter their streams flow down gently from the frost-bound mountains and are very inconsiderable, but in summer the melting of the snow often swells them prodigiously, and makes them overflow large tracts of country adjacent to their banks. The principal rivers

Sweden are, the Tornea with its tributary the Muonio, Kalix, the Lulea, the Pitea, the Skelleftea, the Dale-
 nia, the Clara, the Motala, and the Goetha. The
 rivers of Norway resemble in their character those of
 Sweden, excepting that their courses are considerably
 shorter and even more impetuous: the chief of them are
 the Glommen, the Drammen, the Romsdal, the Salten,
 the Alten, and the Tana.

One of the most striking features in Sweden and Norway is the
 number and extent of their lakes, which are computed to occupy nearly
 the twentieth part of the whole area of the country. They are mostly
 beautifully clear, abound in fish, and of great importance to navigation.
 Wenern, the largest of the whole, is situated in the Southern part of the
 kingdom, and is one of the great points of communication between Gotten-
 burg and Stockholm: between it and the metropolis are the three other
 great lakes Wetteren, Malar, and Hielmar. Besides these we may mention
 the Tornea, the Horn-alvan, the Stor, the Siljan, the Fœmund, and the
 Åsen. Sweden and Norway are likewise famous for their enormous
 forests, which supply vast quantities of timber and are a source of consider-
 able profit in their commerce with other nations.

The North Cape is the Northernmost point of the kingdom, and the
 the Southern extremity of Norway; Tulstorp Head is the Southern-
 most cape of Sweden, and the capes of Waddo and Biuro-Klubb its Eastern
 extremities. There are several prominent headlands in Norway but they
 are otherwise of little note; indeed the coast of this country is more intri-
 cate than any other in the whole world. The chief seas round Sweden are
 the Gulf of Botnia and the Baltic, which wash its Eastern coast and are
 separated from each other by the St. of Åland; and the Cattegat and
 the Skagerrack which with the Sound divide it from Denmark.

6. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. After various
 attempts to propagate the doctrines of the Gospel in
 Sweden, the reformed religion, in spite of great opposi-
 tion, was established by the diet and synod held at
 Upsal, A. D. 1593; and the decree of uniformity of reli-
 gion was passed 20 years afterwards, members of the
 Church of England and Calvinists being legally tole-
 rated. Since the year 1814, Sweden and Norway,
 though distinct kingdoms, have been governed by the
 same sovereign. The government of Sweden is a limited
 monarchy, a considerable share of power being vested in
 the nobility and the people. The Diet, which, however
 different in its formation, bears in its object a resem-
 blance to the British Parliament, consists of four orders,
 viz. the nobility, clergy, citizens, and peasants.

The Swedes were formerly idolaters, and the city of Upsal was the
 seat of their *superstitious* worship. But the celebrated temple, in which

Kingdom of Sweden.

their three principal deities were enshrined, was destroyed towards the close of the eleventh century, and on its ruins a Christian church was founded. Prior to the year 1809, Sweden possessed the valuable province of Finland (which now belongs to Russia), and, in 1814, received the accession of Norway, on ceding to Denmark the comparatively insignificant province of Swedish Pomerania, situated on the mainland of Germany, to the West of the R. Oder, and including the I. of Rugen.

8. SWEDEN consisted originally of three kingdoms, viz. Gothland, Sweden Proper, and Norrland, each of which was subdivided into provinces. This distinction is now abolished, and the whole kingdom divided into 24 districts, or *laens* as the Swedes call them. According to the census taken in 1825, Sweden contained 2,724,778 inhabitants. Its only foreign possession is the I. of St. Bartholomew, in the West Indies, which was ceded to it by France, in 1785; it is five leagues in circuit, and contains about 3,000 inhabitants.

9. The names of the twenty-four provinces of Sweden, and of its more ancient divisions, together with their chief cities and towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

Old Provinces.		New Provinces.	Chief Cities and Towns.	Population.
GOTHLAND, or PROVINCE OF SWEDEN.	Scania - - -	Malmöhus -	Malmö -	6,000
	Bleking - - -	Christianstad -	Christianstad -	3,000
	Smöland - - -	Bleking - - -	Carlskrona -	11,000
	Halland - - -	Kronoberg - -	Wexjö -	1,300
	Westergothland -	Calmar - - -	Calmar -	4,500
	Dalsland - - -	Jönköping - -	Jönköping -	3,000
	Östergothland -	Halmstad - -	Halmstad -	1,500
	Gottland I. - -	Gotheborg - -	Gotheborg -	24,000
		Skaraborg - -	Mariestad -	1,000
		Elfsborg - - -	Wenersborg -	1,500
SWEDEN PROPER, or PROVINCE OF SWEDEN.		Linköping - -	Linköping -	3,000
		Gottland - - -	Wisby -	3,800
	Upland and Södermanland -	Stockholm - -	Stockholm -	79,000
	Upland - - -	Upsala - - -	Upsal -	4,500
	Södermanland -	Nyköping - - -	Nyköping -	2,300
	Westmanland -	Wasteras - - -	Wasteras -	3,000
	Westmanland and Nerike -	Örebro - - -	Örebro -	3,000
	Värmland - - -	Carlstad - - -	Carlstad -	2,200
	Dalarna - - -	Stora-Kopparberg -	Falun -	4,700
	Centralland and Medelpad -	Gefleborg - - -	Gefle -	6,000

Old Provinces.		New Provinces.	Chief Cities and Towns.	Population.
OF NORTHERN SWEDEN:	Jœmtland and Herje-Edalen	Jœmtland -	Æstersund -	1,500
	Medelpad and Angermanland	Wester-Norrland	Hernösand -	1,800
	Wester-Botten -	Wester-Botten -	Umea -	1,100
	Lappmark -	Norr-Botten -	Pitea -	1,000

10. Stockholm, the metropolis of Sweden, is built on ten small rocky islands and peninsulas, formed by arms of the sea, at the junction of Lake Mœlar, with the Baltic. About three centuries ago, it consisted of a few fishermen's huts on a bare island; but when a castle was built to stop the inroads of the Russians, and the court was translated hither, the city gradually increased. There are many handsome buildings, and some very flourishing manufactories, in Stockholm: its population amounts to 79,000 souls.

11. Upsal, anciently the residence of the Swedish Kings, and now the see of the Archbishop, is a tolerably well built open town, about 40 miles to the N. of Stockholm. It is famous for its university, which was founded in 1591; and its observatory is likewise remarkable, as the meridian passes the Swedish geographers reckon their longitude. Old Upsal was formerly the capital of the North, and the principal place where the worshippers of Odin assembled. The famous temple, dedicated to the god of thunder, and the goddess of regeneration, was stripped of its idols about the end of the eleventh century, and converted into a Christian church. No vestige of the ancient town remains: its site is now partly occupied by 30 peasants' houses, on an eminence a league from Upsal, and environed by many tumuli, of different sizes, abounding in ancient monuments.

12. Runic is a term applied to the language and letters of the ancient Goths, Danes, and other Northern nations; and is said to be derived from a word in the ancient Gothic language, signifying to cut, these characters having been first cut in wood or stone. Many learned writers have imagined that the Runic character was borrowed from the Roman, and that it was first known in the North before the introduction of Christianity; but, it appears to be as easily reducible to the Greek and Hebrew alphabets, as to the Roman. An evident proof that the Runic letters were not derived from the Roman, results not only from their form, which has scarcely any resemblance to these, but from their number being but 16, and their order and names, which have nothing in common with the Roman, Greek, or Gothic characters. All the old chronicles and poems of the North uni-

versally agree in assigning to the Runic characters a very remote antiquity, and in attributing the invention of them to Odin or Woden himself.

13. To the West of Upsal, on the Northern shore of Lake Mœlar, stands Wasteras, remarkable as the place where the government was changed from an elective to an hereditary monarchy, in 1544. Goteborg or Gottenburg, founded by Charles the 9th, A. D. 1604, reduced to ashes by the Danes soon afterwards, and rebuilt by Gustavus Adolphus on its present site, is a considerable, tolerably well built, commercial town, about three miles in circuit; it stands on the shore of the Cattegat, opposite the Northern extremity of Denmark, and is famous as the principal landing place in all Sweden. As a commercial and manufacturing town, it ranks next to the metropolis, Carlskrona, situated near the S. Eastern point of the kingdom, is likewise celebrated for its handsome and commodious harbour. A little to the North of it is Calmar, a very ancient, though by no means a large town; it is famous as the place where the union of the three kingdoms was concluded; A. D. 1397. To the East of the province of Calmar is the I. of Gottland, frequently called the Eye of the Baltic, from its very advantageous situation; it lies about midway between the mainland of Sweden and the opposite coast of Russia, being about 70 miles from each.

14. NORWAY is divided into four governments or provinces. The established religion of the country is the Lutheran, but all sects are tolerated; and though governed by the king of Sweden, it preserves its own constitution and laws, as well as a separate assembly or diet, but has no royal establishment. According to the census taken in 1826, Norway contained 1,050,132 inhabitants. Its metropolis is Christiania, so named after Christian the 4th, who built it, A. D. 1624, at the head of the gulf which partly divides Sweden from Norway, and is now called Christiania Ford. The annual sittings of the constitutional assembly called the Storting, are held here: in it, likewise, is the great university of the country.

15. Norway was divided into a number of petty principalities, until the ninth century, when these were all united under one head. It was little known to the rest of the world, except from its piracies, till 1397, when it was incorporated with Denmark. At the termination of the hostilities, with which all Europe was convulsed during the early part of the present century, and in consequence of the side taken by Denmark during their continuance, the various Powers concerned in the matter signed a treaty, by which it was stipulated that Norway should be permanently governed by the same king as Sweden, but as an integral state, and with the preservation of its constitution and laws. It was declared a free, independent, and inalienable kingdom, the succession to be in the male line, and the reigning prince a Lutheran: and, Sweden having assented to these preliminaries, the king of that country was unanimously elected to the throne of Norway, November the 4th, 1814. Norway is, therefore, now governed as a province of Sweden, exactly as it was when under the control of Denmark.

16. Its provinces and chief towns are as follows :

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Population.
Aggerahuns or Christiania - -	Christiania - -	20,600
Christiansand - - - -	Christiansand - -	4,900
Bergenhuus or Bergen - - -	Bergen - -	20,800
Trondheim or Drontheim, which in- cludes Nordland and Finmark - }	Trondheim or Drontheim - }	9,000

17. To the S. of Christiania, and close upon the borders of Sweden, stands Friderickshald, where Charles the 12th met his death, in 1718. Lidesand, commonly called by us The Nase, is a high, barren, and rocky promontory, and the Southern point of Norway : near it Harold assembled 200 vessels to invade England. The whole coast of Norway is covered with an innumerable multitude of islands and rocks, which render the navigation difficult and perilous. These, which lie opposite the district of Nordland extend the farthest into the sea, and are called the Loffoden Islands. Towards their Southern extremity is a dreadful vortex, called the Malstrom, the current of which runs in a direction contrary to the tides. It is heard at the distance of many leagues, and forms a whirlpool of great extent, and so violent, that if a ship comes near it, it is irresistibly drawn into the vortex, and dashed to pieces amongst the rocks at the bottom. This phenomenon is occasioned by the contraction of the stream in its course amongst the rocks.

CHAPTER XII.

EMPIRE OF RUSSIA.

1. THIS immense empire, inferior only to that of Great Britain, occupies nearly the whole of Northern Europe, the whole Northern part of Asia, and a large portion of America ; it extends from Mackenzies R. in the last mentioned continent, across Bherings St., to the Baltic Sea, and from the Frozen Ocean to the rivers Vistula and Aras, and to the Black and Caspian Seas. It contains a superficial extent of 5,448,800 square miles, and an estimated population of about 68,776,300 souls. It is divided into three principal parts, named after the continents in which they are situated, viz. Russia in Europe, *Russia in Asia*, and *Russian America*.

2. The area and population of these three great divisions may be seen in the following table :

	Square Miles.	Estimated Population.
Russia in Europe - - - -	1,819,500	55,716,300
Russia in Asia - - - -	3,583,600	13,000,000
Russia in America - - - -	545,700	60,000
Total - -	5,448,800	68,776,300

3. EUROPEAN RUSSIA is bounded on the N. by the Frozen Ocean ; on the W. by the kingdom of Sweden, the Gulf of Botnia, the Baltic Sea, and the kingdom of Prussia ; on the S. by the Austrian and Ottoman Empires, and by the Black Sea and Sea of Azov ; and on the E. by Asiatic Russia. It contains 1,819,500 square miles, and an estimated population (somewhat overrated as it is thought) of 55,716,300 souls.

4. PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS. Russia in Europe is in general a very flat country, covered with vast plains or steppes as they are termed by the inhabitants. Towards its extremities, however, it is bounded by some lofty chains of mountains, viz. those of Finland and Olonetz in the N. W., the Oural Mountains in the East which separate it from Asia, and the range of the Caucasus on the S. which partly bounds the continent of Europe in that direction.

5. The mountains of Finland are a continuation of those in Sweden called Kirell, which, where they form the boundary between it and Russia, are named Manselka : hence they wind their way through Finland, and gradually lose their mountainous character as they approach the provinces of St. Petersburg, Novgorod, and Vologda. The Oural Mountains are far loftier, and stretch under different appellations from the Caspian Sea to the Frozen Ocean. The Caucasus is still more inaccessible, and stretches across the isthmus between the Black and Caspian Seas ; a part of it likewise traverses the S. E. portion of the Crimea. The Valdai Mountains are the only range remaining worthy to be noticed ; they extend from the mountains of Finland, mentioned above, through several of the central provinces of Russia (as Smolensk, Moskow, Toola, and Orlov), and though few of their peaks exceed 1,200 feet in height, yet so level in general is the whole country that several of its largest rivers, amongst others the Don, the Volga, the Dniepr, and the two Dvinas, have their sources in them.

6. PRINCIPAL RIVERS in the Southern part of Russia. The Volga rises in the Valdai Mountains in the heart of Russia, and runs with a S. E. course of 2,100 miles into

7. Caspian Sea at Astrakhan. To the W. of it flow Rivers Don and Dniepr, which rise not far from it & pursue nearly a similar direction for 1,260 miles; the former runs into the Sea of Azov at the town of Azov, & the latter enters the N. W. corner of the Black Sea at Kherson. Still farther Westward are the Boug, the Dniestr, and the Pruth: of these the Dniestr, which is far the largest, rises in the Galician hills and runs on a S. E. course of 823 miles into the Black Sea at Ibraila; the Boug enters the Black Sea near Kherson, at the mouth of the Dniepr; and the Pruth joins the Dniestr between the towns of Ibraila and Ismail.

8. In the Northern part of Russia the two Westernmost rivers are the Vistula and the Neman, which have been already described as partly in the kingdom of Prussia: they both run into the Baltic Sea, the former at Dantzic and the latter at Memel. Beyond these to the Eastward is the Western R. Dvina, which rises in the Valdai Mountains and flows with a N. W. course of 600 miles into the G. of Riga. To the N. E. of this is the R. Msta, which issues from the same range and flows into the L. Ilmen; it has been connected by a canal with the R. Volkov which runs into the L. Ladoga. The Neva is a broad river only 35 miles long, flowing from the last mentioned lake into the G. of Finland below St. Petersburg.

9. The Onega is the westernmost amongst the great rivers of Russia which discharge themselves into the White Sea: it rises to the E. of the L. of Onega, and enters the B. of Onega near the town of Onega. To the Eastward of it is the Northern Dvina, which enters the B. of Archangel at the town of Archangel; it is formed by two other rivers named Soukhona and Youg, and is 160 miles long. The Pitchora is in the N. E. corner of Russia; it rises in the Oural Mountains, and runs thence to the Arctic Ocean with a N. W. course of 949 miles.

10. CHIEF LAKES, &c. There are few lakes in Russia excepting in its N. Western part and in Finland. The principal of these are the lakes of Ladoga, Onega, Peipus, (or Tchudskoe), Ilmen, Bieloe, Saimen, Payana, and Ladoga. Amongst the principal gulfs may be men-

tioned those of Livonia [or Riga] and of Finland, which are both arms of the Baltic Sea on the Western coast of Russia: the former lies between the provinces of Courland and Riga, and is shut in at its mouth by the islands of Oesel and Dago; the G. of Finland lies between the provinces of Finland and Vyborg on the N., and those of St. Petersburg and Revel on the South. On the N. W. coast of the empire is the White Sea, which is an extensive inlet of the Frozen Ocean, and contains the four minor Bays of Mezene, Archangel, Onega, and Kandalaskaya. To the E. of it are the Gulfs of Tcheskaya and the Sea of Kara, the latter of which is on the limits of European and Asiatic Russia.

10. The Black or Euxine Sea has been already described as partly washing the Southern coast of Russia; it touches upon the provinces of Bessarabia, Kherson, and Taurida. The Sea of Azov lies to the N. of it, and is surrounded by the province of Taurida, excepting towards the N., where it is bounded by the province of Ekaterinoslav: it is separated from the Euxine by the St. of Enikale or Cimmerian Bosphorus, which is about 20 miles long, and in most parts considerably broader than the Thracian Bosphorus or, as it is now usually called, the Channel of Constantinople.

11. The chief capes of Russia are, C. Aya the Southern extremity of the Crimea on the Black Sea; Domes Ness the Northernmost point of Courland, and the promontory of Eknas the Southernmost cape of Finland, both on the Baltic Sea; Sviatoi Noss, Voronov Noss, and Nanin Noss, all three in the Frozen Ocean on the coast of the province of Archangel.

12. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The established religion of Russia is that of the Greek Church, with a free toleration, however, of all sects, as well as of Mahometans, since the beginning of the last century. In superstition and in puerile ceremonies, the Russian Church ranks fully as low as the Roman Catholic in the South of Europe; the number of saints and fast days is equally great, the chief difference lying in matters of mere form, and in a rather more frequent reference to the Scriptures. The government of Russia is an absolute monarchy, very nearly assimilated to Asiatic despotism: the power of the monarch is unlimited, except

by the respect due to the nobility and clergy, the people being in such a state of vassalage as to be wholly unqualified to bear a part in governing themselves.

13. Russia has latterly, however, been considered a sort of constitutional monarchy, from the sovereign having given a kind of senate the right of remonstrating against any *ukase* [or edict] contrary to law : but this power, granted only in order to check the ascendency of the nobles, is as yet merely ostensible, owing to the almost total want of public opinion in this semi-barbarous country. The senate is a great body, partly deliberative, partly executive, to which the ministers and all officers presiding over the public departments are in a measure responsible. It is divided into nine sections or committees, of which six, comprising 62 members, hold their sittings at St. Petersburg, and three, with 26 members, at Moscow. The senate is likewise the highest judicial tribunal in the empire ; it exercises superintendence over the courts of law, examines the public expenditure, and has the power of inquiring into public abuses. The nobility, distinguished formerly by the titles of *knazes*, *boyards*, and *woiwodes*, now receive the appellations of princes, counts, and barons ; but they nevertheless consider themselves as forming only one body, and as all possessing the same privileges, amongst which that of being the sole proprietors of land, and of being exempt from taxation, are not the least. The peasantry are very ignorant and in a most abject condition, being bought and sold along with the estate they cultivate, and sometimes even separately. They are subject at all seasons to be called away in the service of their master, who may send any of them to the army when he thinks fit. The whole Russian nation may be said to be composed of these poor bondsmen and the nobility. The intermediate body, consisting of freemen, comprises, even in the large towns, hardly any other than foreign settlers or their descendants, and are as yet too few in number to rank as a separate class. The title of the sovereign, formerly Grand Prince, or Grand Duke, was changed by Peter I. in 1721, to that of Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias.

14. Education is still at a very low ebb in Russia, the country being too backward to provide almost any establishments excepting those supported by government. There are, however, six universities, viz. at St. Petersburg, Moscow, Vilna, Dorpat, Kharkov, and Kazane. The professors and higher teachers in the towns are generally Germans, and indeed many of the highest offices in the state are held by foreigners. Russian literature is as yet in its infancy, the native publications being very few, and the best books almost all translations.

15. Russia has varied greatly in its territorial divisions : the old denominations of Great Russia, Little Russia, Black Russia, White Russia, and Red Russia, having been retained till the beginning of the last century, when the country was portioned out into governments or provinces. This division of the empire has been at various times greatly altered and modified. The number of governments or provinces is now reckoned 48 : of these ten, in the Western part of the empire, formerly belonged to the crown of Poland ; and six

others, viz. Taurida, the Don Cossacks, Saratov, Sinbirs, Kazane, and Perm, are partly in Europe, and partly in Asia.

16. Great Russia comprehended an immense tract extending from the Frozen Ocean to about the middle of the course of the R. Don: it is now divided into 19 governments, and still forms the largest and most populous portion of European Russia. Little Russia lay to the S. of the preceding, and now forms the provinces of Tchernigov, Kherson, Kiev, Ekaterinoslav, and Poltava. Black Russia was formerly the name of a subdivision of Lithuania, which now forms a considerable part of the government of Minsk. White Russia was likewise a part of Lithuania, and included the provinces of Smolensk, Moghilev, and Vitebsk. Red Russia was formerly an independent duchy, which belonged to Poland after 1396; it formed the palatinates of Chelm, Belez, and Lemberg, and now belongs partly to Russia, but principally to Austria.

17. The names of the provinces of Russia, together with their chief towns, and the population of the latter (as estimated in 1826) may be seen in the following table:

Governments and Provinces.		Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1826.
NORTHERN RUSSIA:	Archangel - - - -	Archangel - -	10,000
	Olonez - - - -	Petrozavodsk -	7,500
	Finland - - - -	Helsingfors -	9,100
	Revel or Esthonia -	Revel - -	15,000
	Livonia, Riga, or Liefland -	Riga - -	30,000
	Pskov - - - -	Pskov - -	12,000
	St. Petersburg - - -	St. Petersburg -	300,000
	Novgorod - - - -	Novgorod - -	10,000
	Tver - - - -	Tver - -	25,000
	Yaroslavl - - - -	Yaroslavl - -	24,000
	Kostroma - - - -	Kostroma - -	20,000
CENTRAL RUSSIA:	Vologda - - - -	Vologda - -	14,000
	Viatka - - - -	Viatka - -	12,000
	Perm - - - -	Perm - -	6,000
	Smolensk - - - -	Smolensk - -	12,600
	Tchernigov - - - -	Tchernigov - -	10,000
	Koursk - - - -	Koursk - -	12,000
	Orlov or Orel - - -	Orel - -	24,000
	Toola - - - -	Toola - -	38,000
	Kalouga - - - -	Kalouga - -	25,000
	Moscow - - - -	Moscow - -	250,000
	Vladimir - - - -	Vladimir - -	3,500
	Riazane - - - -	Riazane - -	11,000
	Tambov - - - -	Tambov - -	10,700
	Penza - - - -	Penza - -	8,000
	Nizney Novgorod - -	Nizney Novgorod -	10,000
	Kazane - - - -	Kazane - -	25,000
	Sinbirs - - - -	Sinbirs - -	13,000

Counties and Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1826.
Saratov - - - -	Saratov - -	10,000
Don Cossacks - - - -	Tcherkask - -	2,500
Taurida - - - -	Simferopol - -	20,000
Ekaterinoslav - - - -	Ekaterinoslav - -	5,000
Voronetz - - - -	Voronetz - -	20,000
Oukrain - - - -	Kharkov - -	10,000
Poltava - - - -	Poltava - -	10,000
Kiev - - - -	Kiev - -	40,000
Kherson - - - -	Kherson - -	12,000
Bessarabia - - - -	Kischenan - -	5,000
Courland - - - -	Mittau - -	12,000
Bielo or Vitebsk - - - -	Vitebsk - -	15,000
Moghilev - - - -	Moghilev - -	7,000
Minsk - - - -	Minsk - -	2,000
Vilna - - - -	Vilna - -	50,000
Grodno - - - -	Grodno - -	6,000
Bialystok - - - -	Bialystok - -	6,000
Volinsk or Volhynia - - - -	Shitomir - -	5,500
Podolia - - - -	Kamenetz - -	5,600
Kingdom of Poland or Duchy of Warsaw - - - -	Warsaw - -	125,000

POLAND was formerly one of the largest countries of continental Europe, being bounded on the W. by Prussia, on the S. by Hungary, Walachia, and Servia, and on the E. by Russia, but its dominions have undergone very great changes at different periods. The territory subject to the crown of Poland in the most flourishing period of its history, amounted to 216,000 square miles, and contained about 15,000,000 inhabitants, the greater part of its population lived in the country, the towns being both few and small for so extensive a kingdom. It comprised three great governments, or provinces, viz. Great Poland in the North, Lithuania in the North East, and Little Poland in the South: these again were subdivided into 32 palatinates.

The ten provinces of Poland mentioned above are only ones of the country officially retaining its ancient name, and are nearly the same as those which from 1807 to 1813 formed the Grand Duchy of Warsaw:

they include a superficial extent of 36,000 square miles, and a population of 2,800,000 souls. The majority of the people profess the Roman Catholic religion, but the Protestants of different sects are also very numerous; there are likewise a great many Jews, and several members of the Greek church. Though subject to the same sovereign as Russia, they are governed in every respect as a separate monarchy: the regal dignity is vested in the *Czar* (as the emperor of Russia is styled) represented by a viceroy, to whom and to a cabinet of ministers the executive power is confided.

20. There are now, as formerly, a senate and a diet. The former consists of an upper house, containing 30 members named by the king for life, and of a lower house, or chamber of representatives, 77 in number, chosen by the provincial nobility and gentry: the discussions of the senate somewhat resemble those of the British Parliament. The sittings of the diet, which is composed of the two houses, last only a fortnight; the sovereign is not pledged to convoke it more than once in two years, its consent being only necessary to measures of general interest.

21. The names of the 32 Palatinates of the old Kingdom of Poland, together with their chief towns, may be seen in the following table:

	Palatinates.	Chief Towns.		Palatinates.	Chief Towns.
GREAT POLAND:	Pomerelia -	Marienwerder.	LITHUANIA, continued.	Polotsk -	Polotsk.
	Marienburg -	Marienburg.		Vitebsk -	Vitebsk.
	Culm -	Culm.		Novgorod -	Novgorod.
	Posnania -	Posen.		Minsk -	Minsk.
	Gnesne -	Gnesne.		Mstislavl -	Mstislavl.
	Kalisch -	Kalisch.		Polesia -	Brzesc.
	Lenczyeza -	Lenczyeza.	LITTLE POLAND:	Sandomir -	Sandomir.
	Siradia -	Sieradz.		Lublin -	Lublin.
	Plock -	Plock.		Chelm -	Chelm.
	Rava -	Rava.		Cracovia -	Krakau.
	Masovia -	Warsaw.		Bielsk -	Bielsk.
	Podlachia -	Bielsk.		Lemberg -	Lemberg.
LITHUANIA:	Courland -	Mittau.		Volhynia -	Lucko.
	Samogitia -	Rosien.		Podolia -	Kamienetz.
	Livonia -	Riga.		Oukrain -	Bratzlav.
	Troki -	Troki.			
	Vilna -	Vilna.			

22. The reformation was introduced into Poland at an early period, and made a rapid progress among all ranks. The number of Protestants became in many parts equal to that of the Roman Catholics, and in the middle of the 16th century a complete equality was established among all classes of Christians. Subsequently to this, however, the Church of Rome had the art to procure an act, which confirmed to their clergy the

not possession of their vast property and influence throughout Poland ; preponderance naturally consequent on such a measure, enabled to narrow the range of toleration, so that at the beginning of the 17th century the Protestants and members of the Greek Church were ineligible to public offices. A partial relaxation of these tyrannical laws was afterwards obtained by the interference of England, Russia, and Denmark ; and the partition which was at length made of the country, materially altered the face of affairs as they regarded the Polish and Prussian divisions of Poland, in both of which the Roman Catholics found it necessary humbly to sue for that toleration, which they proudly refused to others.

The government of the old kingdom of Poland was a monarchy, hereditary, and sometimes elective, limited by a Diet. The Senate, established in the 11th century, was composed of 150 members, of whom in some measure nominated by the king, were independent of the king's appointment, and were even regarded as a counterpoise to his authority. This body comprised the representatives of the clergy, the nobles of state, and such of the nobles as filled certain civil and military offices. In the 14th century the nobility availed themselves of the weakness of a female reign, to appropriate a large portion of power to themselves, and insisted on the nation being taxed only by its representatives ; this was the origin of the diet. They afterwards went on to encroach on another, till at last they made the crown elected its power over the armed forces, and disqualified all peasants, as well as most inhabitants of towns, from possessing landed property. At the commencement of the 16th century they had in a manner extinguished the executive power, by deciding that the king could determine no important consequence without the unanimous consent of the Diet. After this there was insecurity and confusion. In the smaller or ordinary diets the nobles of each district elected their representatives, who seldom exceeded 100 ; in the grand diets for the election of the king, the number of representatives was immense, as every man bearing the title of noble had a right to be present in person, and to vote. This vast assembly met armed and on horseback, in a plain adjoining the village of Wola, in the neighbourhood of Warsaw.

The last king of Poland was Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski, who vainly endeavoured to uphold the falling glory of his country, on its centre as it was by the political quarrels attendant on such a feeble government, and by the bigoted contests between the Papists and Protestants from them. At length, Frederick 2nd., king of Prussia, who had been wishing for an opportunity of seizing upon that part of Poland which touched upon his own dominions, proposed to Russia and Austria a partition of a great part of the Polish territory ; and a treaty to that effect was signed at St. Petersburg in 1772, by the plenipotentiaries of the three powers. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen remonstrated against this monstrous usurpation, but took no active steps to prevent it. The Poles made some ineffectual exertions under Kosciuszko, to protect the little remnant of liberty which was left to them, but their independence only awakened the jealousy of Catharine 2nd. of Russia, which led to a fresh partition of their country in 1793. This was two years afterwards, by a final division of the remaining provinces between the three powers, Russia obtaining on each occasion by far the largest share. Such was the state of Poland until at the peace of Tilsit, when Napoleon Bonaparte stripped Prussia of the greater part of her Polish pos-

sessions; of these he gave a small portion to Russia, and erected the rest into a new state, which he called the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, assigning the sovereignty of it to his ally the king of Saxony. Two years afterwards, having vanquished Austria in the field, he compelled her to cede part of her Polish territory to Russia, and a farther part to his new grand duchy. But all Bonaparte's arrangements were overturned by his disastrous campaign of 1812: and the congress of Vienna, whilst it decreed to Austria and Prussia a partial restitution of their late cessions, confirmed to Russia all the Polish provinces acquired before 1795, conferring on her, in addition, the sovereignty of the central provinces, which constitute the present kingdom of Poland.

25. St. Petersburg, the capital of the province of the same name, and the present metropolis of the whole Russian Empire, is situated at the Eastern extremity of the Gulf of Finland, and at the mouth of the R. Neva, which connects it with L. Ladoga: it stands partly upon the banks of the river, and partly upon 12 islands, formed by it's different arms. It is about 16 miles in circuit, and is almost entirely undefended on the land side; but the approach by sea is guarded by the fort of Cronstadt, which is situated on an island in the gulf, about 12 miles distant from the city. Previous to 1703, the site of Petersburg, was occupied only by a few fishermen's huts, and the situation chosen by Peter 1st. for the establishment of a fortified seaport, was a low muddy island, flooded by the waters of the Neva in summer, and in winter covered with it's ice. But it was not till after the battle of Poltava, in 1709, that the indefatigable Czar overcame all the difficulties of such a situation, and succeeded in establishing his new city; after his death it was progressively extended and embellished, and at last made the residence of the court and the seat of government, by the Empress Catherine 2d. St. Petersburg possesses, more than any capital in Europe, the advantage of modern taste in it's outline and structure; it's streets and squares are remarkable for their width and regularity; and it's public buildings present, in general, a magnificent appearance. The university of St. Petersburg is by no means in a flourishing state, having only been established since 1819; there are, however, several inferior institutions for the purposes of education, but the native Russians, for the most part, are so uncivilized, and possess so very little know-

Of judgment, that several of them are merely

Moscow, or Moskwa as it is called by the natives, is in the centre of Russia; it was for a long time the seat of government, and the capital of the whole empire, and still is the capital of the interior, only the occasional residence of the court. The emperors are crowned in this city, and it is the abode of some of the most ancient and wealthy families amongst the Russian nobility. Moscow is not of great antiquity, having been founded in the middle of the twelfth century, and is situated on a little river of the same name, which runs into the Oka, and then into the Volga; it is about 16 miles in circumference: the houses are generally only two stories high, and mostly built of wood, but the edifices are numerous and comparatively splendid. The Kremlin is on such elevated ground, that it commands a pleasant prospect over the whole city. Here is the ancient palace of the Czars, which was destroyed by the great conflagration of 1812, but was much damaged by the last detachment that left the city; it is now, however, rebuilt with magnificence. Here also is the church of St. Michael, containing the tombs of the ancient Czars; and near it stands the church of the Assumption of the Virgin Mary, where the emperors are crowned. Though the Kremlin is not of great extent, it contains several other churches and monasteries, the walls of which give it at first a very striking appearance. Moscow was captured by the French under Bonaparte, in the year 1812, but arrangements had been previously made for setting it on fire, by order of the Russian government; thus carrying into execution the plan of the campaign, which was to abandon and destroy. The conflagration did not become general for several days after the enemy had entered the city, when it raged for three weeks and destroyed nearly three-fourths of the houses, and almost all the palaces. Bonaparte professed an intention of making Moscow his winter-quarters, even after the conflagration, and accordingly ordered one of the forts to be fortified and made a dépôt for his train. He remained here a long time in the vain hope of prevailing on the Russian Court to conclude a peace with an enemy already in possession of its capital; but being baffled in this expectation, he left the city at night, and commenced that retreat which proved so disastrous to his army, and in which he left many thousands of his bravest troops to perish from cold and hunger, whilst he hastened home as rapidly as possible. Moscow has been rebuilt, and has since more attained its former magnitude, though the palaces of the empire are by no means so large and magnificent as they were before the conflagration. As a place of education it enjoys but a slender reputation, notwithstanding the pains taken by the Russian government to bestow instruction upon its half-civilized subjects: the number of students at the university is always far below its complement, and the inferior academies are better attended.

Helsingfors, the capital of the Grand Duchy of Finland, and the chief seat of the provincial government, is situated on a peninsula on the N. E. of the G. of Finland; it was built by Gustavus Ist. and has frequently suffered from the miseries of war. It is very strongly fortified, and one of its fortresses, named Sweaborg, which is situated on a rock in the midst of the Gulf, is considered almost impregnable. Helsingfors enjoys a considerable trade. To the W. of it, at the extremity of the great promontory formed by the Gulfs of Botnia and Finland, stands Abo, the former capital

of Finland and still the most populous place in the province: it contains a university which is well attended both by the Russians and Finns. The harbour of Abo is very commodious, and is frequented by the ships of many neighbouring nations, with whom the inhabitants carry on an extensive commerce. The population of Abo amounts to about 12,000 souls: the town is remarkable for a treaty of peace which was concluded there in 1743 between Sweden and Russia, after a war which terminated very unfavourably for the former power.—The chief sea-ports of Russia, besides St. Petersburg, are Archangel, at the mouth of the Northern Dvina, on the White Sea; Riga, at the mouth of the Southern or Polish Dvina, on an arm of the Baltic; and Odessa, at the entrance of the Dniestr into the Euxine.

28. Warsaw, the capital of the present kingdom of Poland, and formerly the metropolis of the whole country, is situated on the left bank of the R. Vistula, midway between the Austrian and Prussian dominions. It is about 15 miles in circuit, and is the residence of the Russian viceroy, as well as the place of assembly for the Diet. It is surrounded with a wall, and contains many handsome palaces and public edifices, as well as a tolerably flourishing university; but the Poles as well as the Russians are immersed in a lamentable state of ignorance, and the two are considered the most illiterate nations in Europe, with the single exception of the Turks. The population of Warsaw in 1826 amounted to 125,000 souls.

REPUBLIC OF CRACOW.

29. Cracow, or Krakau, for a long time the capital of Poland, was erected by the congress of Vienna, in 1815, into a little republic, under the protection of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, upon the common limits of which countries it is situated. It stands on the left bank of the R. Vistula, at no great distance from its source; the territory belonging to it is about 40 miles long by 10 broad, and contains about 100,000 inhabitants, of whom about one third are to be found in the city itself. Cracow was the place prescribed by the constitution for the coronation of the ancient Polish kings; but the last of them was crowned at Warsaw, in 1764: in its cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Stanislaus, were formerly deposited the crown, jewels, and regalia; and it likewise contains the tombs of many of the monarchs. There are many handsome buildings in the city, and, viewed from a distance, its steeples and antique towers, its castle, and the wide space covered by its numerous great edifices, give it the appearance of an extensive metropolis; but these vestiges of antiquity are unoccupied, and the houses, though massy and spacious, are very old and irregularly built, and in many cases rapidly going to decay. Cracow, however, was at one time a very

ishing city, and contained no less than 70,000 inhabitants: its university still ranks as the first in all Italy.

1.—The remainder of the Russian Empire will be found described in the next volumes of *Asia and America*.

CHAPTER XIII.

ITALIAN STATES.

ITALY is bounded on the North, North West, North East, by the great mountainous range of the Alps, on the East by the Adriatic Sea or Gulf of Venice, on the South and West by the Mediterranean Sea. To the N. W. it touches upon the Kingdom of France; to the N. upon the Republic of Switzerland, and the Austrian provinces of Tyrol and Carinthia; and to the N. E. upon the Austrian provinces of Carniola and Croatia: on the other sides it is washed by the sea.

Italy is divided into several sovereign and independent states, viz. the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom, which belongs to the Empire of Austria, and has been already described; it occupies the N. Eastern part of the country between the rivers Po and Ticino, the G. of Venice, and the Alps; its capital is Milan. To the W. of it, in the N. part of Italy is the Kingdom of Sardinia, which likewise includes the island of this name in the Mediterranean Sea; its continental part is bounded by the Alps, the R. Ticino, the G. of Spezzia, and the Mediterranean Sea; its capital is Turin. To the Eastward of this latter Kingdom, and to the S. of the Po, are the several small Duchies of Parma, Modena, Massa-Carrara, and Lucca, with their respective capitals of the same names. Below these is the Grand Duchy of Tuscany, bounded on the North and S. by the Papal Territory, and on the W. by the Mediterranean Sea; its metropolis is Florence.

3. The State of the Church, or Papedom, occupies the whole central part of Italy; it is washed on the E. by the G. of Venice and on the W. by the Mediterranean Sea; to the N. it confines upon the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom, the Duchy of Modena, and the Grand Duchy of Tuscany; and to the S. it is bounded by the Kingdom of Naples: its metropolis is Rome. The Republic of San Marino is an insignificant state in the N. E. part of the Papal Territory, and completely surrounded by it; it lies between Tuscany and the Adriatic Sea, and has a capital of the same name. The Kingdom of Naples or of The Two Sicilies includes the whole Southern part of Italy, together with the Island of Sicily; it is washed on all sides by the sea excepting towards the N. where it confines with the Papal Dominions: its capital is Naples.

4. PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS. The grand semicircular chain of the Alps, sweeping round from Monaco, on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea and near the frontiers of France and Italy, to the Kingdom of Illyria near the head of the Gulf of Venice, is still known as it was formerly by various names. The Southernmost part, towards France, is called the Maritime Alps, and extends as far N. as Monte Viso. The Cottian Alps extend from M. Viso to M. Cenis; and from the latter mountain to M. Blanc are the Graian Alps, over which, at the Lit. St. Bernard, Hannibal passed on his invasion of Italy. M. Blanc is the highest mountain in Europe, being 15,680 feet above the level of the sea. From M. Blanc to M. S. Gothard, the chain of the Alps is called the Pennine Alps: hence the Rhaetian or Tyrolese Alps wind through the S. E. part of Switzerland and the Tyrol to the sources of the rivers Drave and Piave, where they assume the name of the Carnic or Julian Alps, and at the Birnbaumer Wald near the frontiers of Venice, Carniola, and Istria, pass off to the S. E. through Croatia and Dalmatia into Turkey.

5. The Apennine Ms., after detaching themselves from the Maritime Alps, run diagonally across Italy, to the sources of the rivers Arno and Tiber, whence they proceed Southwards, through its whole length, terminat-

t C. dell' Armi : their highest point is called Monte
b or Il gran Sasso, which is 8,790 feet above the
of the sea. About nine miles to the E. of Naples
a volcano of Vesuvius, which is unconnected with
reat range of mountains traversing Italy, and rises
gentle swell from the Gulf of Naples to the height
120 feet above the level of the sea. The range of
ains which extends through the whole Northern
of the I. of Sicily may be regarded as the continua-
of the Apennines : it bears the general name of
e Madonia. In the N. E. part of the island, con-
d with this range by a spur, is the terrible volcano
ia or Gibello, which is 10,940 feet above the level
e sea, and overhangs, as it were, the towns of Catania
Taormina.

PRINCIPAL RIVERS. The chief river of Italy is
Po, which rises in M^e. Viso and runs first N. to
b, and then E. past Placenza and Cremona into the
Adriatic Sea to the S. of Venice ; its length is 370 miles,
it receives in its progress the waters of more than
vers from the Alps and Apennines. The chief of
tributaries flowing into it from the N. are, the
a Riparia, the Doria Baltea, the Sesia, the Ticino,
Ambro, the Adda, the Oglio, the Mincio, and the
aro : amongst its Southern tributaries may be men-
d, the Chisone, the Stura, the Trebbia, the Parma,
Secchio, the Panaro, and the Reno. The Po enters
sea by seven mouths : near Ferrara, which is about
miles from the Adriatic, it is divided into three prin-
cipal arms, the Northernmost of which is the main branch
of the river, the middle one is called the Po di Volano,
the Southern one the Po di Primaro.

The next greatest river of Italy is the Adige, which
rises in the Tyrol amongst the Rhætian Alps, and flows
in a S. Easterly course, past Botzen, Trent, and Ve-
nice, into the Adriatic Sea between Venice and the Po :
its length is 245 miles, and its chief tributaries are the
Reno, the Etsch, and the Avisio. The Arno rises in
the Apennines, and runs thence, generally in a Western
direction, past Florence and Pisa, into the Mediterranean
Sea : it is 125 miles long, and is wholly in Tuscany.

The Tiber, or Tevere as the Italians call it, also rises in the Apennines not far from the springs of the Arno; hence it flows with a Southerly course through Rome, and enters the Mediterranean 18 miles below this famous city: its length is 215 miles, and it receives the waters of more than 40 rivers, the chief of which are the Chiana, the Paglia, the Nera, the Velino, and the Teverone.

8. Between the mouths of the Tiber and the Arno are the smaller rivers Marta, Ombrone, and Cecina, which enter the Mediterranean Sea opposite the I. of Corsica: and to the N. of the Arno are, the Serchio or river of Lucca, and the Magra. There are several considerable streams which flow from the Carnic Alps through the province of Venice into the head of the Adriatic Sea; amongst others we may notice the Tagliamento, the Livenza, the Piave, and the Brenta.

9. The rivers which descend from the Apennines either Eastward into the G. of Venice, or Westward into the Mediterranean Sea, are, with the exception of the Tiber and the Arno, very short, although they partake much of the impetuosity of mountain-torrents. The chief of those which water the Eastern part of Italy are, the Ronco or river of Ravenna, the Metauro, the Tronto, the Pescara, the Sangro, the Biserno, the Ofanto, and the Bradano. The chief rivers which remain to be mentioned on the Western coast are, the Garigliano, the Volturno, the Lagni, and the Sele. The principal rivers of Sicily are, the Giaretta and Lentini on its Eastern coast; the Salso, the Platani, and the Belici on its Southern coast.

10. **PRINCIPAL GULFS, &c.** The principal gulfs on the Western coast of Italy are, the G. of Genoa on the shores of the Grand Duchy of the same name; the Bay of Terracina on the common limits of the Papal Territory and the Kingdom of Naples; the Gulfs of Gaeta, of Naples, of Salerno, of Policastro, of S. Eufemia, and of Gioja, all on the coast of the latter state. On the Eastern shores of Italy are, the G. of Quarnero between Istria and Morlachia, and the G. of Trieste between Istria and Venice, both at the head of the Adriatic Sea; with the Gulfs of Manfredonia, of Taranto, and of Squillace, on the eastern coasts of the Kingdom of Naples.

11. There are several large inland lakes in the Northern part of Italy, lying immediately under the Alps and to the N. of the R. Po: the majestic mountainous scenery to the N. of them, the luxuriance of the plains of Lombardy to the S. of them, with the splendour of the azure sky above them reflected upon their own beautiful and peaceful waters, have for many centuries combined to render them the resort of the lovers of nature and a subject for the poets of every nation. The chief of these lakes are, the Lago di Garda which is traversed by the R. Mincio; L. Iseo, through which the R. Oglio pursues its course to the R. Po; the Lago di Como, through which the R. Adda winds its way; the Lago Maggiore, which is traversed by the R. Ticino; and L. Lugano which lies between the two last mentioned lakes, and communicates with the Maggiore. Besides these there are three lakes in the central part of Italy which deserve to be noticed, viz.

he L. of Bolseno, L. Bracciano, and L. Fucino or Celano. The two first of these are in the Western division of the Papal Territory, between the R. Tiber and the Mediterranean Sea; the last is in the Northern part of the Kingdom of Naples, between the Apennines and one of the arms of the R. Garigliano.

12. CHIEF CAPES. The principal promontories on the Eastern shores of Italy are, Punta di Promontore, the S. extremity of Istria; Testa del Gargano, a bold headland terminating Monte S. Angelo in Naples; C. di Leuca, the S. point of the province of Terra di Otranto; C. Nau, or delle Colonne, the E. extremity of Calabria; C. Spartivento, and C. dell' Armi, at the Southern extremity of the peninsula. Ascending the W. coast we meet with C. Vaticano, on the western shores of Calabria; C. Spartivento, in the Principato Citra; Punta della Campanella, and C. Miseno, both in the Terra di Lavoro; Monte Circello, the Southern extremity of the Papal Territory; and the C. di Campana, one of the Westernmost points of Tuscany.

KINGDOM OF SARDINIA.

13. The Kingdom of Sardinia comprises the Island of Sardinia and the continental territories of Savoy, Piedmont, Nice, and Genoa, in the N. W. part of Italy; it contains 23,900 square miles, and its estimated population, in 1825, was 4,100,000 souls. The island constitutes about one-third of the whole territory, and includes about one-ninth part of the total number of inhabitants: it lies to the S. of Corsica (from which it is separated by a very narrow channel), about midway between Naples and the island of Majorca, and at a distance of about 150 miles from Rome, Tunis, and Sicily. The continental dominions of Sardinia touch to the N. upon Switzerland, to the W. upon France, to the S. upon that part of the Mediterranean which is called the Gulf of Genoa, and to the E. upon the duchy of Massa-Carrara, the duchy of Parma, and the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom.

14. The Religion of the State and of the Royal Family is the Roman Catholic, of a strict and bigoted character; other sects enjoy a very limited toleration. The Government is an absolute monarchy, the crown being hereditary, and females incapable of succession: the con-

stitution has few definite limits, excepting the privileges guaranteed to particular states on their incorporation with the kingdom.

15. There are two universities in the continental states, viz. Turin and Genoa, which, amongst other duties, have that of exercising a general superintendence over the provincial schools: there are likewise two other universities in the Island of Sardinia, one at Cagliari, and one at Sassari: but the course of education pursued at them is very imperfect.

16. The provinces of which the whole kingdom of Sardinia is composed, together with their chief towns, and the population of the latter may be seen in the following table:

Great Provinces.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1826.
Duchy of Savoy	- - - - -	Chambery	12,500
Principality of Piedmont	{ Aosta	Citta d'Aosta	6,000
	{ Turin	Turin	114,000
	{ Novara	Novara	13,000
	{ Alexandria	Alexandria	28,000
	{ Cuneo	Cuneo	8,000
	{ Montferrat	Acqui	7,000
County of Nice	- - - - -	Nice	18,000
Principality of Monaco	- - - - -	Monaco	1,200
Grand Duchy of Genoa	{ Riviera Ponente	Savona	11,000
	{ Riviera Levante	Genoa	85,000
Island of Sardinia	{ Capo di Sassari	Sassari	30,000
	{ Capo di Cagliari	Cagliari	35,000

17. Turin, the metropolis and seat of the Sardinian monarchy, stands in a beautiful plain, on the Western bank of the Po, near its junction with the waters of the Doria Riparia: it is nearly four miles in circumference, and contains many public edifices, which are mostly built or ornamented with marble of every vein and colour. The Po is here navigable, and is very advantageous for the commerce of the city. About 50 miles lower down, the Po is joined by the Tanaro: not far from this junction, on the banks of the latter river, stands the important town of Alexandria, the third town in the kingdom, and one of the strongest places in all Italy.

18. A mile or two to the E. of Alexandria is Marengo, where a bloody battle was fought, A. D. 1800, between the Austrians and French, which made the latter people

loss of Piedmont; their victory was decisive, but the loss was not less than that of the army they had combat. To the S. of Alexandria, on the Mediterranean, is the city of Genoa, at the head of the gulf which derived its name from it; next to the metropolis, it is the most important place in the whole of the Sardinian territory. It is exceedingly strong, being surrounded on land side by a double wall, the inner one inclosing within a circuit of five miles, the outer one taking in the surrounding hills, with a circuit of nearly ten miles.

When viewed from the harbour, Genoa and its environs present the appearance of an amphitheatre; the white buildings, erected on successive terraces, form a striking contrast with the naked appearance of the Apennines, and give the city an air of great magnificence; but the interior, though containing many handsome buildings, does not correspond with these impressions.

In the eleventh century, Genoa, already one of the chief towns of Italy, became the capital of a considerable tract of adjacent country, the various states incorporating themselves with it for the sake of protection. Commerce, too, soon became very considerable, and her power arrived at the pitch, that, in conjunction with Pisa, she took Sardinia from the Moors. After this, she obtained several valuable settlements in the Levant, Crimea, and on the shores of the Bosphorus and Euxine Sea, which served as depôts for the merchandize commissioned by her citizens from the Minor, and even from India. She also obtained possession of Syracuse and the island of Corsica: but these extended occupancies involved her in wars with Venice and her neighbour, the Duke of Savoy, which, with a series of aggravated dissensions at home, paved the way to her ruin. The storm of the French revolution, and the successes of Bonaparte, led to sedition amongst the Genoese, which broke out in 1798, when they declared their country the name of the Ligurian Republic; but they soon fell victims to the example they had followed, by having their territory enrolled amongst the provinces of France, and by being exposed to severe sufferings by the long and bloody struggles, which preceded the final overthrow of the Corsican despot. The Congress of Vienna made over the city and territory of Genoa to the King of Sardinia, stipulating that they should continue to be governed by their own laws, preserve their own senate, their supreme court of justice, and provincial councils, whose assent should be necessary to the levying of new taxes.

Cagliari, the capital of Sardinia, is situated on the Southern side of the island, at the head of the Gulf of Cagliari, on a little hill near the mouth of the R. Malargia. It has few pretensions to the name of a capital, presenting but a miserable appearance; it is, however, the residence of the viceroy of Sardinia, the seat of a royal audience, chancery, and so forth, and possesses many religious houses.

DUCHY OF PARMA.

21. The Duchy of Parma is bounded on the N. by the kingdom of Lombardy-Venice; from which it is separated by the R. Po; on the E. by the Duchy of Modena, from which it is separated by the R. Enza;

on the S. the Apennines divide it from a detached part of the Grand Duchy of Tuscany and the Duchy of Massa-Carrara; on the W. it confines with the kingdom of Sardinia. It contains 1,840 square miles, and its estimated population in 1826 amounted to 440,000 souls.

22. The inhabitants are almost all Roman Catholics, and have in general the character of a frugal industrious people. The government of Parma is in the hands of the reigning power, and is not controlled by states or any other representative assembly.

23. By the treaty of Paris in 1814, the territory of Parma was given to Maria Louisa, the ex-empress of France, devolving on her death to Austria and Sardinia; but it has been since stipulated that, in return for certain equivalents, it should eventually revert to Spain, into whose hands it fell by marriage at the beginning of the last century. It is divided into four provinces, viz.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1826.
Parma - - -	Parma - - -	30,000
Placenza - - -	Placenza - - -	18,000
Borgo S. Donino - - -	Borgo S. Donino - - -	5,000
Guastalla - - -	Guastalla - - -	5,000

24. Parma, the capital of the duchy, is beautifully situated in a fertile plain on the banks of the small river Parma, which is a tributary of the Po; its circumference is nearly three miles, and it is surrounded by a ditch and mound, but the latter is of use only as a public walk. It contains many handsome buildings, amongst others a university, which is tolerably well attended. The famous Parmesan cheese was originally produced in the surrounding country, but it is now chiefly made in the rich pastures between Milan and the Po, in Lombardy.

25. The city of Placenza lies to the N. W. of Parma, on the right bank of the Po, near its confluence with the Trebbia; it is a place of some little consequence, being the capital of the duchy of Placenza, which occupies the Western part of the government of Parma from the Apennines to the Po: it likewise contains a university, but it is of no great note in the history of literature. Guastalla is worthy of little notice, except as the chief place of a Duchy of the same name, annexed to the territory of Parma; it is situated to the N. E. of Parma, on the R. Po, not far from its junction with the Oglio.

DUCHY OF MODENA.

26. The Duchy of Modena is bounded on the N. by the kingdom of Lombardy-Venice, on the E. by the State of the Church, on the S. by the Duchy of Lucca and the Grand Duchy of Tuscany, on the W. by part of the latter State, the Duchy of Massa-Carrara, and the Duchy of Parma. It contains 1,400 square miles, and its population in 1826 was estimated at 350,000 souls. The inhabitants are all Roman Catholics. The government is absolute, and is vested in the hands of the Duke.

27. This duchy is possessed by a lateral branch of the House of Austria, the Archduke Francis of Este, whose mother, the Archduchess Maria Beatrix, is sovereign of Massa-Carrara; upon her death this last duchy reverts to the House of Modena, and hence it is frequently reckoned, though improperly, amongst the possessions of the latter. It is divided into three provinces, viz.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1826.
Modena - - -	Modena - - -	27,000
Reggio - - -	Reggio - - -	16,000
Carfagnana - - -	Carfagnana - - -	5,000

28. Modena, the metropolis of the duchy, is situated in a delightful plain between the rivers Secchia and Panaro; it contains the ducal palace, a cathedral, and many other public buildings, together with a college or university: it has likewise a citadel, and is surrounded with ramparts, which, however, conduce less to its strength than to the beauty of its aspect.

29. Reggio is the capital of a small duchy of the same name belonging to the territory of Modena; it is a regularly built town, situated to the N. W. of Modena, on a tributary of the Po called the Tessona, and is remarkable as the birth-place of Ariosto. To the N. of Modena, about midway between it and the Po, stands Mirandola, on the little R. Burana; it is regularly fortified, and is the capital of the Duchy of Mirandola, which is annexed to Modena.

DUCHY OF MASSA-CARRARA.

30. The Duchy of Massa-Carrara is bounded on the W. by the kingdom of Sardinia, on the N. by the Duchy of Parma, on the E. by the Duchy of Modena and some insulated parts of the Grand Duchy of Tuscany, and on the S. by the Mediterranean Sea. It contains about

420 square miles, and its estimated population in 1826 amounted to 30,000 souls. The executive power is absolute, and in the hands of the sovereign: the people are all Roman Catholics. The chief towns are Massa and Carrara.

31. This state is composed of the Duchy of Massa and the Principality of Carrara, the government of which is vested in the person of the Archduchess Maria Beatrice d'Este, mother of the Duke of Modena, and is to devolve to the latter State upon her death. The surface of the country is mountainous, but tolerably fertile; the mountains, from the base to the summit, are composed almost entirely of beautiful marble. Massa, the capital of the duchy, is situated on the little R. Frigido, about three miles from the Mediterranean; it is well built, and defended by a castle, and contains the government palace, together with an academy of sculpture and architecture: it has 7,000 inhabitants. Carrara lies about three miles from Massa, and at an equal distance from the Mediterranean, on the little river Lavenza; it has long been celebrated for its quarries of beautiful marble, which was well known to the ancients, and is said to have furnished them with the materials for building the Pantheon at Rome: it is of different colours and kinds, and is adapted to the various purposes of building and statuary. Carrara contains 3,000 inhabitants.

DUCHY OF LUCCA.

32. The Duchy of Lucca is bounded on the E. and S. by the Grand Duchy of Tuscany, on the W. by the Mediterranean, and on the N. by an insulated part of the last mentioned State and by the Duchy of Modena. It likewise possesses some small portions of territory enclosed within the Duchy of Massa and the dependancies of Tuscany. It contains 310 square miles, and its estimated population in 1826 amounted to 143,000 souls. The government is an absolute sovereignty, and the inhabitants, who are amongst the most industrious in all Italy, are Roman Catholics. The metropolis is also called Lucca.

33. From the middle of the 15th century till 1805, Lucca maintained itself in the form of an independent republic, with an aristocratical government, the head of which bore the title of Gonfaloniere; but after the latter period it underwent several changes, in consequence of having fallen into the hands of the French. In the year 1815, the Congress of Vienna erected it into a duchy, and gave it as an indemnity to the Infanta of Spain, Maria Louisa, *ci-devant* Duchess of Parma.

34. Lucca, the capital of the duchy, is situated on the R. Serchio, about 10 miles from its mouth in the Mediterranean, in a fertile plain, which is surrounded by beautifully cultivated hills; its circuit is nearly three miles. Its fortifications, though regular and in good repair, are not of great strength, and the ramparts being planted with trees give it from a distance the appear-

of a forest: It is the seat of government and the see of an archbishop, contains the palace of the princess, a university, and an academy of and sciences: its population in 1826 was estimated at 20,000 souls. One or two from it are some warm springs, much celebrated through the country for the efficacy of their waters.

GRAND DUCHY OF TUSCANY.

15. The Grand Duchy of Tuscany is bounded on the N. by the Duchy of Lucca and the Papal States, on the E. by the latter territory, on the S. and W. by the Mediterranean Sea, in which it possesses Elba and some smaller islands between Corsica and the main. It contains 6,320 square miles, and its population in 1826 was estimated at 1,275,000 souls. The established religion is the Roman Catholic, but the inhabitants are not so united as some of their neighbours. The form of government in Tuscany is monarchical; the power of the Grand Duke, though exercised with mildness, is restricted to no representative body, or even written authority: the executive part is managed by the cabinet and a council of state.

16. Tuscany has likewise several insulated possessions, such as that of Portoferraio, between the Duchies of Massa-Carrara and Lucca; of Barga, the N. of the latter state; of Fivizzano between Parma and Massa-Carrara, &c. It is divided into five provinces, viz.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1826.
Florence - - -	Florence - - -	80,000
Pisa - - -	Pisa - - -	18,500
Sienna - - -	Sienna - - -	21,000
Arezzo - - -	Arezzo - - -	7,500
Grosseto - - -	Grosseto - - -	2,000

17. Tuscany was at first held as a Duchy and fief of Lombardy, but it was subsequently restored to independence. During the 12th and 13th centuries, it was divided into the three republics of Florence, Pisa, and Siena: Florence subjugated Pisa in 1406, after a very long war. The family of the Medici, become the most powerful in the whole country from the wealth it had acquired by commerce, gradually assumed a great ascendancy in the government, and in 1380 obtained the complete sovereignty of the state. Alexander de Medici was created Duke of Tuscany by the Emperor Charles the 5th; and Cosmo de Medici, his cousin and successor, received from Pope Pius 5th the title of Grand Duke of Tuscany, which was afterwards confirmed by the Emperor Maximilian 2d. The House of Medici having become extinct in 1737, the Grand Duchy of Tuscany was given to the Duke of Lorraine, husband of Maria Theresa the heiress of Austria, in

exchange for Lorraine which passed to France. That prince becoming afterwards emperor of Germany, vested the Grand Duchy in his second son, from whom it has descended to the present Grand Duke.

38. Florence, or Firenze as it is called by the Italians, is the metropolis of Tuscany, and one of the finest cities in Italy, or even in all Europe; it stands in a delightful valley intersected by the Arno, occupying both sides of the river. The whole valley is one continued grove and garden, where the beauty of the country is enlivened by the animation of the inhabitants, and the fertility of the soil is redoubled by the industry of the cultivators. The city, which is of an oval form, and about $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles in circuit, is surrounded by a wall, and has two citadels. It is the residence of the sovereign, and the seat of government, and contains many stately and splendid buildings; the cathedral is a Gothic edifice of vast extent and magnificence, and in boldness and skill inferior only to St. Peter's of Rome. It also possesses an admirable Gallery of works of art, a University, and a very celebrated Academy.

39. Pisa, lower down the Arno and not many miles from its mouth, was formerly one of the most important cities of Italy, though now presenting a dull and deserted appearance; its population, said to have once amounted to 150,000, does not now much exceed the tenth part of this number. Its circuit is nearly six miles, and it contains many very handsome public edifices; the most curious of these is the *Campanile Torto* or leaning tower, which is a cylindrical tower 188 feet in height, constructed of several rows of pillars, but remarkable for its inclining about 15 feet out of the perpendicular. The University of Pisa, one of the oldest in Italy, has been long a distinguished nursery of literature, and though considerably reduced in importance, is still accounted the seat of Tuscan education.

40. About 10 miles below the mouth of the Arno stands the famous seaport of Leghorn, or Livorno as it is called by the natives; it is of a square form, about three miles in circuit, fortified towards the sea, but towards the land merely enclosed by a stone wall: its estimated population in 1826 was 75,000 souls. It is the residence of consuls from the different European Powers, and is accounted the greatest commercial depot in Italy, being annually visited by several thousand vessels; it supplies the interior of Italy with the produce of the rest of Europe, the Levant, and the colonies, and exports in return the produce of the neighbouring country. It stands in a marshy district, which commences here, and extends along the coast as far South as Terracina at the extremity of the Pontine Marshes on the Neapolitan frontier: this long tract of country, known by the name of the *Maremma*, is exceedingly marshy and unwholesome, the whole of it being affected with *malaria*. Sienna lies to the E. of Leghorn, in the centre of Tuscany, not far from the springs of the Ombrone: it is a handsome and interesting town, and contains a small university of some standing.

41. *The island of Elba*, the largest of those which lie off the coast of

any, is opposite Piombino on the mainland, from which it is only seven miles distant: it is remarkable as having been the residence of Bonaparte from May 1814 to 26th February 1815, when he broke his faith with his conquerors by sailing to France, and four months afterwards received his overthrow from the hands of the British, on the memorable plains of Waterloo.

STATE OF THE CHURCH.

42. The State of the Church, called also the Papal dominions or Popedom, and sometimes the Ecclesiastical or Roman States, is separated on the N. from the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom by the lower part of the Po; from the Duchy of Modena and the Grand Duchy of Tuscany on the W. by an irregular line running down this river to the Tuscan Sea, which last washes its northern coast; and from the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies on the E. by another irregular line, stretching from the mouth of the Tronto to the Southern extremity of the Pontine Marshes: the Adriatic Sea bathes its eastern shores, from the R. Tronto to the mouths of the Tiber. Its greatest length is about 230 miles, and its greatest breadth about 90, but its average breadth does not exceed 60 miles: it contains 13,300 square miles, and its estimated population, in 1826, amounted to 590,000 souls.

43. The Pope's subjects are, of course, almost all Roman Catholics; but, in the large towns there are some Protestants of foreign extraction, and a few Jews. Amongst the principal errors of the Church of Rome, denounced and opposed by the Protestants, are Transubstantiation, or a belief that the consecrated wafer, or *Host*, as it is called [from the Latin word *Hostia*, a sacrifice], is absolutely changed in the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper, into the real and substantial body and blood of Christ; Purgatory, or the intermediate state of punishment between this life and the final judgment, from which the souls of men can be delivered by the prayers, or alms, or penances of the faithful; the worship of the Virgin Mary; the intercession of saints; the worship of images and relics; miraculous interpositions; the celibacy of the clergy, &c. &c.

44. The form of government in the Roman States,

however absurd it may seem, is pretended to be a Theocracy, the Pope, as the Vicar or Vicegerent of God, being invested with absolute power, both spiritual and temporal. The great ministers of state, and the governors of the delegations or provinces, are cardinals; the latter hear causes and pass sentence in all but capital offences. The Pope can alter or annul the existing laws whenever he thinks proper.

45. The candidates for the Papal tiara are necessarily members of the college of cardinals, and for some time back they have been Italians by birth. The election of the pope rested formerly with the nobility, clergy, and citizens of Rome; but in the year 1059 it was transferred to the college of cardinals. The number of the latter is nominally 70, but it is seldom complete: the Roman Catholic courts of Austria, France, and Spain, have the right to object to the appointment of such cardinals as do not suit them. An assembly of cardinals held under the presidency of the pope is called a Consistory, and may be either public or private. The latter, which is commonly held once in fourteen days, is a kind of cabinet council: a public consistory, or meeting of all the cardinals, is held once a month, when his holiness gives audience to foreign ambassadors. A Congregation is a board or commission held under a cardinal or other prelate: there are several kinds of them for various purposes, such as that for drawing dispensations and bulls, superintending the tribunal of the Inquisition, watching over the different communities, regulating the ceremonies throughout the Romish Church, seizing on prohibited books, directing foreign missions, &c. &c.

46. The scriptural means by which the knowledge of the Christian religion is to be preserved in the world, are the perpetual observance of the institutions, and the right interpretation of the completed Scriptures. To secure these great objects, the Divine Founder of Christianity appointed twelve Teachers, and after them He appeared from the invisible state to appoint another, who should establish societies from among the mass of mankind, and set apart teachers to instruct the people, interpret the Scriptures, and maintain the institutions of the new religion. The apostles were equal among themselves. They governed the whole visible Church, or general body of Christians, when they were assembled together; and each was the spiritual ruler of the Church or society which himself had founded. The peculiar doctrines which characterize Christianity are all identified with facts. The facts are the foundation of the doctrine, and moral influences are deducible from the doctrine which is thus sanctioned and established. The first creeds were very scanty, because controversies were few and were decided by highly venerated teachers. They were enlarged as the decisions of the Catholic Church, represented by its general councils, concluded the controversies commenced by the philosophy which wrongly explained, or wilfully rejected, the faith which was generally received. The general reception of an opinion among all Churches, was esteemed a proof that it had been originally taught by the apostles and their successors.

47. Such was the new faith, which, at the closing of the canon of Scripture, had begun to leaven the whole mass of the subjects of the imperial dominions. Churches had been founded in Rome, Corinth, Crete, Antioch, the cities of Asia Minor, Italy, Britain, Spain, and elsewhere. Every *separate Church* was a society complete in itself, governed through all its

of laity, and through the minor offices of the priesthood, the presbyters, by one episcopal head, who was liable to be by the sentence of his own order, if he violated the Christian faith. It was controlled by the rest of his brethren, while every independence preserved its freedom under the empire of known law. It has not since beheld more union in the belief, or more perfection of conduct of Christians. The churches of God, in these early ages, armed by every weapon which the devices of an evil spirit, or the weakness of the human heart, could suggest; and their conquests were over its inveterate foes. The civil and military powers of the idolatrous governments opposed them by ten sanguinary persecutions; and there is some difficulty in rightly estimating the number of sufferers, which affords a sufficiency of undeniable evidence abundantly to demonstrate prejudice, hatred, and cruelty of the persecutors, and the singular boldness and zeal, of fortitude and patience, among the blameless in the cause of Christianity. But the more their spiritual enemies and the turbulent heathen without, oppressed the Churches of God, the more they multiplied and grew, till the majority of the Empire embraced the doctrine of the Gospel, and the Emperor of Rome himself became a convert, and protector, of the Christian faith.

Ecclesiastical history ought only to have related the progress of knowledge, virtue, and happiness: it tells the same sad and gloomy tale of human infirmity, and crime, and folly, which profane history has given to the world. It was at the death of Constantine that the principal heresies commenced, which still divide the Universal Church, and which have proved the great sources of all the corruptions and degradations of Christians: the one contaminated the doctrine, and destroyed the government, of the independent episcopal Churches. The doctrine of Arius, which induced him to reject the plain declaration of the Scriptures as well as the evidence of antiquity both of the Jews and Gentiles, to prefer his private speculations to that interpretation of Scripture which had been uniformly adopted by the Universal Church, led to many disputes which convulsed the whole Church for three centuries. Disputes led to the calling of the first general councils of Nice, Constantinople, Ephesus, and Chalcedon, which have confirmed the general doctrine of the primitive Churches, and that also of the far greater portion of Christians at present, on the subject of the person of Christ, of the doctrine of the Incarnation, and the Atonement. But the progressive decline of the age, by the extinction of learning amongst the heathen, in consequence of the political convulsion of the Roman Empire and the invasions of the barbarians, by the puerile attention to trifles amongst Christians, by the general contempt in which they were held, and the universal mental debasement, rendered this the fittest period for the establishment of the two great corruptions of Christianity; the superstition of Rome and Mahomet, the predicted rival enemies of pure Christianity in the West and East.

The early churches were united into one society by the observance of a common law—submission to episcopal government. A member of one episcopal Church of one country, was considered a member of the Universal Church of Christ in every country where he might happen to be. When Christianity began to be more extensively dispersed, the Church at Rome was distinguished above all others by the number and growth of its converts. The Bishop of Rome was soon enabled, by the donations made to the Church, to assume greater pomp, and

exercise more extensive power, than other Bishops. Many circumstances occurred to increase and establish his influence. The provinces had accustomed to bring their civil appeals to Rome, and hence this became precedent for the members of the provincial Churches to appeal from their own Bishops to the Bishop of Rome. A general deference was paid at the Western Churches in the first centuries, to the see of Rome, though more open usurpations were repelled with contempt. When Victor was bishop of Rome in the year 195, excommunicated the Church of Asia for refusing to observe Easter in the manner which he judged right, Irenæus, the metropolitan of France, reproved his presumption the year 250, the African Church peremptorily refused to submit to the mandate of the Bishop of Rome, and received again their heretical bishop. The Church of Spain also, a few years afterwards, refused to submit to the Roman Pontiff when he insisted on the restoration of their bishops after they had been deposed for offering sacrifice to idols. These facts are sufficient to prove the early assumption of power, and the continuation of the Popes in the primitive ages, and the refusal of the independent episcopal Churches to submit to their dominion.

50. The political divisions of Italy, in the fourth century, considerably increased the influence and power of the see of Rome, the ecclesiastical divisions of the Church being made conformable with those of the empire. Every province had its Metropolitan, and every vicariate its ecclesiastical primate. The Bishop of Rome presided in the latter capacity over the Roman vicariate, which comprehended Southern Italy, and the three Mediterranean islands. But none of the ten provinces which formed the division, had any Metropolitan, so that the Popes exercised all metropolitan functions within them, such as the consecration of bishops, the convocation of synods, the ultimate decision of appeals, and many others of authority. These provinces were called the Roman Patriarchate, and gradually enlarging its boundaries, and by applying the maxims of jurisdiction by which it was governed, to all the Western Churches, the primacy was extended and strengthened over the fairest portion of the empire. Another principal circumstance, which contributed to the establishment of the power of the church of Rome, was the removal of the empire from that city to Constantinople. The political influence, attendant on the immediate presence of the sovereign, consequently diminished, and the principal magistrate at Rome was the head of its Church. The sudden power which was thus unavoidably, though unintentionally, conferred on the Pontiff, was increased by the abandonment of Rome, and of its principal senators. To this cause of influence we must add, the progress of the conversion of the Northern nations, and the grant of imperial power to Pope Damasus, by the emperors Gratian and Valentinian over the whole Western Church, sanctioning the custom of appeals to Rome. The renewal of this edict by Valentinian the Third, still farther increased the power of the Pontiff. The custom of pilgrimages to the tombs of Peter and St. Paul; the introduction of the Gregorian Litany; and than all these, the granting of the title of Universal Bishop by Phocas

* Phocas was a centurion in the army on the Danube, at the time he revolted from the emperor Mauritius, A. D. 602. It is not at all known how he came to be elected emperor, except from his having been a leader in a sedition. On the intelligence of this revolt, the people of Constantinople broke out into an insurrection, and Mauritius was obliged to retire into the East. Phocas soon afterwards entered the capital, and, with his wife, was en-

Emperor of the East, completed the worldly structure of ecclesiastical domination, which had now usurped the name of the Church of Christ, and aspired to be the rolling stone which should become the predicted mountain and fill the whole earth.

Though many superstitious practices and unscriptural opinions had soiled the purity of the early faith, there can be no comparison between the state of religious error, when the grant of Phocas conferred political power on the Roman pontiff, and the extent to which the system of imposture, deceit, and falsehood, subsequently attained, by the time when the council of Trent impressed its seal on the great Charter of papal slavery. The published works of Pope Leo, who sent Augustine to England, prove that the religious faith of that day was essentially different in the most important doctrines, from the creed which was sanctioned by the council of Trent. The doctrines of solitary masses, masses for the dead, transubstantiation, the supremacy of the pope, the equal authority of Scripture and tradition, the equal authority of the apocryphal with the canonical books of Scripture, the power of good works to deserve salvation, the confession of sins in private to the priest, communion in one kind only, and the worship of images, were all condemned by Pope Leo; and were all decreed to be articles of faith, and as such to be implicitly believed on pain of damnation, by the council of Trent. This remarkable fact destroys at once the truth of the assertion so generally made, that the Church of Rome has maintained an unchangeable creed. The faith of that church is an embodied collection of true and false opinions; partly derived from misinterpreted Scripture, but principally invented in the course of the controversies and discussions which have ever prevailed in the world, and which would have escaped from the memory of mankind, with other absurdities of the age of ignorance, if they had not been preserved, and sanctioned, and enforced, by the asserted infallibility of the most fallible church upon earth.

52. From the grant of Phocas to the age of Luther, the annals of Europe are filled with one long catalogue of crime, produced by the influence of the usurpations of the Church of Rome. The depositions of princes, the fomenting of rebellions, the flagitious lives of the popes, the scandalous decrees against the freedom of opinion, the persecution of the objectors to the power of Rome, which disgrace this sad portion of the history of the world, have been amply and frequently related. The friends of the church of Rome had long endeavoured to effect its reformation before the age of Luther: indignant monstraunces, the most energetic appeals, the most affecting intreaties, the most bitter and galling satire, were alike in vain exerted to induce the removal of abuses. The natural reason of thinking men was shocked at the consequences of the papal doctrines. In this state of things, the injudicious enforcement of one of the more objectionable doctrines of its absurd creed,

by the Patriarch. At the public games which he exhibited on the occasion, a tumult arose, during which he was reminded that Mauritius was still alive. The death of that unfortunate emperor, and of his five sons, soon followed. The reign of the infamous Phocas was full of bloodshed and cruelty, so that he has been justly ranked among the most detestable of tyrants. At length he became an object of terror to his own son-in-law, Heraclius, who with the assistance of Heraclius, exarch of Africa, effected a revolution. Phocas, deserted by his guards and domestics, was seized in his palace, stripped of his imperial robes, and carried to the galley of Heraclius, who had been proclaimed emperor: after this his head was cut off, and his body committed to the flames, in the eighth year of his reign.

elicited the spark which fired the long prepared train of public indignation. Permissions to commit sin were publicly sold, under the pretence of remitting the penalties of the guilt which their commission would have contracted: the open and shameless manner in which these indulgences were sold, together with the quarrel between the rival societies of monks, who were desirous of participating in the profits of the scandalous traffic, occasioned that gradual, open, and indignant opposition to the church of Rome, which ended in the alienation of its fairest provinces, and the restoration of that pure religion and unfettered liberty of mind, which it had been amongst the original objects of Christianity to secure to its adherents.

53. The popes possessed no temporal possessions till the invasion of Italy by Pepin, whatever might have been their political influence previous to that period: for the pretended donation made by Constantine to Silvester 1st. is acknowledged as fabulous by all sound critics, and even by the Italians themselves. Pepin, the first king of France, of the second race of kings, was originally mayor of the palace to Childeric the 3d; being anxious to obtain for his usurpation of the throne, the consent and support of the head of the Church, he formally consulted pope Zachary upon the matter, who replied, like one of the ancient oracles, that the crown belonged to him who exercised the royal power. This was what Pepin wanted; he shortly afterwards had himself proclaimed king, and consecrated by the pope's legate, upon which he confined Childeric in a convent, where he soon died. Some time afterwards he made war upon the Lombards, and having driven them out of the exarchate of Ravenna, he bestowed it upon Pope Stephen 3d, who had solicited assistance from the French king, and had even undertaken a journey to Paris, where he crowned the usurper with the greatest solemnities: this gift was confirmed by Charlemagne, Pepin's son, who added to it the two provinces of Perugia and Spoleto. Ambition and thirst for power were fully displayed by the bishops of Rome, now that they had become temporal princes; in the eleventh century, Henry 3d, Emperor of Germany gave them the duchy of Benevento; in the 12th century, Matilda, Countess of Tuscany, presented the see with those lands, since called the *Patrimonio di S. Pietro*, though then known under various names. Rome was as yet only the residence of the pontiffs, for it belonged to the empire, but was torn from it by a revolution which terminated about the end of the 14th century, in its being annexed, as well as the province of Sabina, to the Papal Territory. In 1532, Clement 7th gained possession of the Marches of Ancona, and united them with the States of the Church: in 1626, the duchy of Urbino, which had belonged to the family of Julius 2d, was annexed to the possessions of the pope.

54. The last conquests made by the see of Rome were those of the provinces of Orvieto, Castro, and Romiglione: the two last of these belonged to Pope Paul 3d, who gave them to his son Farnese, afterwards Duke of Parma; but one of his descendants having pawned them at the *Monte-di-Pietà* in Rome, for a sum of money which he was unable subsequently to return, pope Innocent the 11th took possession of them in the name of the holy see. Thus gradually sprang up the power of the throne of Rome, which boasts itself to be the most ancient in Europe; the sovereignty of which claims for himself the title of the successor of St. Peter, and Prince of the Church, insisting upon the personal homage, and veneration, and prostration of all his subjects, and vainly aspiring to that of the whole world. It cannot be as the successor of an Apostle, that this priest invests himself with the powers of an absolute monarch, over the lives and property of thousands of human beings in this world, and over their happiness in a future state.

clothes himself with purple; that he assumes a triple crown, as re-igning his pretended triple capacity of high priest, supreme judge, and mediator of the Christians; that he surrounds himself with all the inland splendour of royalty, which his feeble means admit of; that he is adorned with all the pomp of magistracy, and the destructive machinery of it requires some patience to follow him through such a tissue of vanity, and to find him notwithstanding, assuming the humble title of "one of the Servants of God:" but the whole details of his assumed dignity are shocking and disgusting indeed. And, amongst its other enormities, it would not be believed, were it other than a point in the history of the State itself, that the head of this apostate church, the fountain of the Inquisition draws its infuriating draughts of bigoted cruelty, and sanctions the lottery; that the drawing takes place in presence of the cardinals, with the greatest solemnities, and that the child who is put into the wheel, only does so after having made the sign of the cross.

The State of the Church was formerly divided into thirteen provinces, viz. Ferrara, Bologna, Romagna, Modena, Citta di Castello, the Marches of Ancona and Pesaro, Camerino, Umbria or Spoleto, Perugia, Orvieto, Macerata, Patrimonio di S. Pietro, and Campagna di Roma. But in 1816 these divisions were discontinued, and the State was then portioned off into 18 Delegations or Provinces, which again were abandoned in 1824: it is now composed of 13 Delegations.

The names of these Delegations, together with their chief towns, and population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

Delegations or Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1826.
Bologna - - - -	Bologna - -	65,000
Ferrara - - - -	Ferrara - -	24,000
Ravenna - - - -	Ravenna - -	24,000
Forli - - - -	Forli - -	16,000
Pesaro and Urbino - -	Pesaro - -	14,000
Ancona - - - -	Ancona - -	25,000
Macerata and Camerino -	Macerata - -	13,000
Fermo and Ascoli - -	Ascoli - -	12,000
Perugia - - - -	Perugia - -	18,000
Spoleto and Rieti - -	Spoleto - -	7,000
Viterbo and Civita Vecchia -	Rome - -	150,000
Frosinone and Ponte-Corvo -	Frosinone - -	6,000
Benevento - - - -	Benevento - -	14,000

The last of these provinces is locally situated in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, and comprises a small circular tract of territory round the

town, whence it derives its name, and which stands upon the R. Calore. The district of Ponte-Corvo, also, which forms part of the Delegation of Frosinone and Ponte-Corvo, is in the same kingdom, being altogether disjointed from the Papal State: it is a small elliptical portion of territory, extending a few miles from Ponte Corvo in a N. W. direction, along the banks of the R. Garigliano. The Pope formerly possessed that part of Ferrara which lay to the N. of the Po, but the Congress of Vienna transferred it to the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom; he likewise, had dominion over the districts of Avignon and Venaissin in France, but the revolution swept them away from his grasp.

58. Rome, the metropolis of the Papal dominions and the seat of its government, occupies both banks of the Tiber, but stands principally on the eastern side of the river: it is still divided into fourteen regions, or *rioni* as they are now called. The seven eminences on which the ancient city was built, are now covered with vineyards, cornfields, or villas, the close population being confined to the level tract between the eminences and the river. The length of this part is about two miles, and its breadth from one to one and a half; but the whole space inclosed by walls approaches to the form of a square, and is about eleven miles in circuit. It possesses many features of the ancient city. The same roads lead to the gates, the same aqueducts pour the same streams into the fountains; the same great churches that received the masters of the world under the emperors, are still open to their descendants; and the same venerable walls, that enclosed so many temples and palaces in the reign of Aurelian, still exist. No city in Europe is superior to Rome in the number and magnificence of its churches. The most remarkable are St. Peter's, the Pantheon, and the seven patriarchal Basilicas or cathedrals, all distinguished for their architecture. The cathedral church of St. Peter is the *chef d'œuvre* of Italy, the largest and most beautiful church in the world, and in magnitude of outline and variety of parts, far exceeds any edifice constructed by the ancient Greeks or Romans.

59. This magnificent cathedral is 720 feet long, 510 broad, and 500 high from the pavement to the top of the cross. Pope Julius the 2d laid the first stone of it in 1506, but it was not finished till 1621: the most celebrated architects, Bramante, Raphael, Michael Angelo, Vignola, Maderno, and Bernini, have displayed their talents in this great work; and no fewer than eighteen successive popes were employed in its construction. The total

has been estimated at 12,000,000 L. sterling. The hall is the most ever constructed by human art, extending upwards of 600 feet in

But of all the objects of this admirable edifice, the most surprising one, the vault of which rises to the height of 400 feet, and extends a spectator like a firmament. The Pantheon, or Rotonda as it is now from its circular form, originally dedicated to all the gods, is now a dedicated to all the saints by Gregory the 4th. It is distinguished solidity and the beauty of its proportions, and is the most perfect of Roman temples now remaining: it is about 147 feet in height and diameter, with a spacious dome receiving the light from one great in the centre. But a still more imposing object is the Colosseum, the theatre of Vespasian, the largest edifice of this kind ever constructed: about one half of its external circuit yet remains, and it is by far the stupendous monument of antiquity in the chaos of magnificent and buildings with which this once mighty city is crowded.

The three palaces of the pope are the Lateran, Quirinal, and Vatican. The Lateran is of great extent, but the main body of the building has been converted into a hospital for orphans. The Quirinal, from its height and lubricity, is now the summer residence of the popes: this splendid likewise bears the name of Monte Cavallo, from two marble groups of it, each representing a horse of colossal proportions, under the feet of a youth. The Vatican, the winter residence of the pope, is situated on an eminence near St. Peter's, and is connected with it; it is a regular pile of building, erected by various architects at different eras, forming not one but an assemblage of edifices: it is said to occupy the site of Nero's golden palace. Under the pontificates of Clement 14th and Pius 6th, this palace was enriched with a numerous collection of antiquities and magnificent statues. The library is one of the largest in the world, and is estimated to contain half a million of volumes and 50,000 manuscripts, the former number is no doubt grossly exaggerated.

Porto, at the mouth of the Tiber, has lost all its splendour and interest, except what is connected with it as being the site of the beautiful Port of Augustus, now a waste of land, and site to Ostia. The great port of the Papal Dominions upon the Tuscan Sea is Civita Vecchia, nearly 15 miles to the N. of the Tiber; it is one of the best harbours belonging to the Pope, and is the place where the Pope's fleet keeps his galleys. The other great harbour of the Pope is Ancona on the shores of the Gulf of Venice; it is by far the most flourishing commercial seaport in the whole of Italy, and its inhabitants are more active and enterprising than the generality of the Italians.

About 10 miles to the S. of Ancona, a mile or two from the sea-shore, is Loreto: it is a mean little insignificant town, built upon a hill, surrounded with a rampart and deep ditch, and defended by towers, without, however, being of sufficient strength to sustain a siege. It owes what little importance it possesses to the idolatrous superstition of the church of Rome: there is the Santa Casa or holy house, said to have been inhabited by the Virgin Mary in Nazareth. This house, formerly nothing but a plain brick

building, though now encased with the finest Carrara marble, is 32 feet long, 13 broad, and 18 high; it is pretended, that in the year 1291 it was conveyed by certain angels from Galilee to Tersato in Dalmatia, and thence, three years afterwards, to Reccanati on the coast of Italy: but eight months afterwards, this site being found inconvenient, it took another flight of a thousand yards, and settled on a piece of ground belonging to a certain lady called Lauretta. Here the triple crown has thought proper to allow it to remain ever since, as the speculation has answered amazingly well: the number of devotees who visit it for the purpose of absolving themselves from vows, obtaining relief from sickness or other distress, and seeking remission of their sins, is very great; before the Reformation, it is said that more than 200,000 pilgrims visited the shrine annually, and laid at the feet of the idol the best offerings they were able to present. It contains a cedar wood statue of the Virgin covered with precious stones, which, on particular days, is dressed out in all sorts of tawdry finery. The inhabitants of Loreto, about 7,000 in number, are employed in the pious manufacture of rosaries, crosses, relics, and any other article with which they can beguile the credulous and the miserable.

63. Bologna is the second town in the Papal Territory, and stands in its northern part, no great distance from the frontiers of the Duchy of Modena: it is of an oblong form, about six miles in circuit, and is surrounded by a brick wall. No town in Italy, excepting Rome, is said to contain more valuable paintings by the first masters. Bologna is likewise famous for its university, which was founded at a very early period; it first drew the attention of Europe to the Roman law, after the slumber of the middle ages, and hence received the title of *Mater Studiorum*: it obtained such renown, that at the beginning of the 13th century it is said to have been attended by 10,000 students, but this number has now dwindled to about 400: Though there is by no means any want of academies and other learned institutions in Rome, Bologna, and some other great towns, the state of literature in the Papal Dominions is far from flourishing.

REPUBLIC OF SAN MARINO.

64. The Republic of San Marino is situated in the N. E. part of Italy: it is completely environed by the dominions of the pope, and lies about midway between the grand duchy of Tuscany and the Gulf of Venice, ten miles from Rimini on the shores of the latter. Its territory is confined to a mountain about 2,000 feet high, with a small tract of country at its base, comprising about forty square miles. It is composed of the town of San Marino and two neighbouring villages, and contains a population of about 7,000 souls: it is governed by its own laws, and acknowledges the pope as a protector, but not as a sovereign.

65. This inconsiderable state, which has enjoyed almost uninterrupted tranquillity for thirteen centuries, and whose sole ambition is to be free, was founded during the fifth century by Marino, a Dalmatian by birth and a mason by trade. After having finished some repairs in the neighbouring

of Rimini, he retired to this mountain, where he led the life of a hermit, and subjected himself to all its austerities. The princess of the country, admiring his extraordinary sanctity, made him a present of the mountain, and a number of inhabitants resorting hither, he established the republic distinguished by his name: after his death he received the honours of canonisation. The whole history of the state is comprised in two purchases made of a neighbouring prince; in the aid it afforded the pope in a war against the lord of Rimini; in its subjugation by his holiness, and its subsequently throwing off his yoke. The executive power is in the hands of 300 elders, and in a senate composed of twenty patricians, twenty citizens, and twenty peasants, with two presidents, or *gonfalonieri*, who are elected every three months: these two magistrates have a guard of thirty men, but if the liberty of the republic should be threatened, every citizen turns soldier.

KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES.

66. The Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, or Naples as it is likewise called, is bounded on the N. by the State of the Church, on the E. by the Gulf of Venice, on the S. and W. by the Mediterranean Sea: it is composed of the Southern part of Italy and the Island of Sicily. It contains 31,700 square miles, and its population (as estimated in 1826) amounted to 7,160,800 souls. The greatest length of its continental territory is 315 miles, and its average breadth about 80; it contains 24,100 square miles, or about as many as Ireland, and 5,456,800 inhabitants. The Island of Sicily, which is nearly the same size as Sardinia, contains 7,600 square miles, and 1,704,000 inhabitants; its shape is that of an isosceles triangle, of which the greatest length from E. to W. is 160 miles, and from N. to S. something more than 40.

67. The inhabitants of the Two Sicilies are almost all Roman Catholics. The only important exception is formed by the descendants of those Albanians, who in the 15th century emigrated from their own country, when it was overrun by the Turks, and settled in many of the small towns in the Southern part of the kingdom: they adhere in general to the doctrines of the Greek Church, but live in great poverty, and are even more backward than the other Italians in the various arts of life. The government of the Two Sicilies is an hereditary monarchy: the executive power is vested in the hands of the king, but his prerogative, which was formerly unlimited, has been of late years somewhat restricted. There are four universities in the kingdom, viz. at Naples,

Salerno, Palermo, and Catania, but they enjoy only a slender celebrity, though that of Naples is said to be attended by about 800 students.

68. The two great pests of Italy, the brigand and the mendicant, are widely spread over the kingdom of the Two Sicilies as over the Dominions of the Pope. The latter are to be found in every village and town of the two countries: the great hold of the brigands is the little mountainous tract of country between Terracina, in the Papal States, and Fondi, in the Kingdom of Naples, but they are to be met with skulking behind rocks and rising in caverns and glens, over the whole extent of these ill-governed territories. The brigands are a cowardly and cruel race of robbers, romantically picturesque in their dress, and singularly rapid in their motions; they are all under the command of one chief, chosen for his cunning and effrontery, and have wives, and children, and fields, and a patron-saint (St. Anthony). The traveller has no means of avoiding their rapacity; to resist is to be massacred, and if he has not sufficient property about him to satisfy their cupidity, he is detained as a hostage till such time as his friends pay the ransom, which these outlaws please to set upon his life.

69. The whole kingdom is divided into 32 provinces, of which 15 appertain to the continental territory, and 7 to the island of Sicily: the names of these, as well as of their chief towns, and the population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

Provinces.		Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1836.
NAPLES:	Abruzzo Ultra I ^a .	Teramo	9,000
	Abruzzo Ultra II ^a .	Aquila	13,500
	Abruzzo Citra	Chieti	12,000
	Sannio or Molise	Campobasso	7,600
	Capitanata	Foggia	20,700
	Terra di Lavoro	Capua	8,000
	Naples	Naples	349,300
	Principato Citra	Salerno	10,000
	Principato Ultra	Avellino	13,500
	Terra di Bari	Bari	15,000
	Terra di Otranto	Lecce	14,000
	Basilicata	Potenza	8,800
	Calabria Citra	Cosenza	9,200
SICILY:	Calabria Ultra I ^a .	Reggio	16,000
	Calabria Ultra II ^a .	Catanzaro	11,000
	Messina	Messina	60,000
	Catania	Catania	45,000
	Syracuse	Syracuse	12,800
	Caltanissetta	Caltanissetta	17,000
	Girgenti	Girgenti	18,000
	Trapani	Trapani	24,000
	Palermo	Palermo	168,000

70. The city of Naples is the metropolis of the kingdom ; its situation is one of the most delightful that can be imagined, being partly on the declivity of a hill, and partly on the margin of a spacious and beautiful bay. It spreads its population along the shore, and covers the shelving coasts and adjacent eminences with its villas and gardens. On the Western side of the bay are the delightful shores of Pozzuoli ; on the East, towers the Volcano of Vesuvius, with its luxuriant sides and smoking summit ; in the centre stands the city, with its palaces, churches, and gardens, rising gradually one above the other : these, with the verdant islands at the mouth of the bay, and the wide expanse of sea, form altogether an almost unrivalled assemblage of picturesque and beautiful scenery. The city is about eight miles in circuit, but twice this including all its suburbs : it is surrounded by a wall, defended by a number of towers and three large castles ; but its fortifications are not adapted to resist an army.

71. The splendour of the churches and other public edifices of Naples consists more in the richness of their paintings, marbles, and other decorations, than in the elegance of their architecture. The cathedral church is a handsome Gothic edifice, supported by more than 100 columns of granite, belonging originally to a temple of Apollo, upon, or near, the site of which it has been built. In the subterranean chapel is deposited the body of St. Januarius, the patron of Naples, and its preserver from the desolations of the terrible Vesuvius ; it contains, amongst other wonders, the pretended blood of the saint, carefully kept in two vials, which, on the day of his festival [it is said] liquifies of itself ; and, according to the space of time which elapses during the performance of the miracle, or rather before the conjuring priest thinks proper to perform the trick, the credulous inhabitants estimate the happiness or misery of the coming year. The higher ranks in Naples are generally ignorant, frivolous, and dissipated ; the lower orders are indolent and superstitious. The Lazzaroni are a part of the populace, without either dwellings or regular occupation, who work only to supply the immediate wants of nature ; they may be said to spend their life in the streets, lying in the shade, or sauntering about during the day, and sleeping at night under a portico, on the pavement, or on the steps of a church : their number is estimated at nearly 40,000. A large tract of country, extending both to the N. and S. of the metropolis, has obtained the name of Campagna Felice, from the happiness of its climate, and the lavish hand with which nature there pours forth all her treasures.

72. About nine miles to the E. of Naples is the volcano of Vesuvius, which rises in a gentle swell from the G. of Naples to the height of 3,820 feet above the level of the sea. The upper part of the mountain has been torn by a series of convulsions, and is strewn with its own fragments ; the part next in the descent is mixed with dried lava, extending in wide black

lines over its surface; whilst the lower part of the volcano, as if danger were far remote, is covered with villages and country seats, with groves of fruit trees, vineyards, and other luxuriant productions, all displaying the great fertility given by the ashes to the soil. The summit of the mountain is in the form of a cone, and consists of masses of burnt earth, ashes, and sand, thrown out in the course of ages by the volcano: the crater is nearly a mile and a half in circumference; but its depth, or descent from the ridge, is not above 350 feet. The total number of great eruptions on record is above thirty, reckoning from the celebrated one of A.D. 79, which proved destructive to Herculaneum and Pompeii: one of the latest, though not most formidable, took place in 1819, and has somewhat lowered the height of the mountain.

73. The volcanic matter which covered Herculaneum was begun to be removed in the year 1689, since which period a prodigious number of ancient monuments of every kind have been discovered, such as basilicks, temples, theatres, paintings, statues, furniture, utensils, &c.: whole streets have been cleared, and are found to be paved and flagged on both sides. The relics are in a surprising state of preservation, and afford a good idea of the manners of the age, and the improvement in the arts. The statues, vases, tripods, and lamps, are often of the finest workmanship, being much superior to the pictures. But the relics which have lately excited the greatest interest, are the Manuscripts; they are chiefly in Greek, but partly also in Latin, and are nearly 2,000 in number: several of them have been unrolled, but by far the greater portion of them is illegible. Pompeii has been likewise opened; it had been almost forgotten till the middle of the last century, when it was discovered, and about one-fourth of the town is now cleared. The streets are paved, but narrow; the houses small; some have two stories, but most of them only one: and, on the whole, Pompeii has, in many respects, a strong resemblance to modern Italian towns.

74. Salerno, the capital of the province of Principato Citra, and situated at the head of a gulf to which it has given name, lies about thirty miles to the S. E. of Naples; it possesses a good harbour: its streets are paved with lava from Vesuvius. It contains an obscure university, formerly in great repute as a medical school, much resorted to by the Arabians and Saracens. Gaeta, another convenient port, lies to the N. W. of the metropolis, upon the confines of the Papal Territory; it is by no means large, but it is very well fortified, and as regularly as the ancient wall would permit. On the South Eastern coast of Italy, and at the head of the great gulf to which it has given name, stands Taranto, or Tarento as it is also called, possessing several advantages as a maritime position: it has a castle of some strength for the protection of its harbour, and contains 18,000 inhabitants; but it is, notwithstanding, a town of but little interest, either as a commercial or military station, though it filled such a conspicuous place in ancient history.

75. Crossing the Strait (or Faro) of Messina into Sicily, we find the city of Messina, the most important place in the island after Palermo. The harbour is the best in Sicily, and is esteemed superior to any other in the Mediterranean: the city itself is well defended, and is considered stronger than any other in the island. Messina has been remarkable for its misfortunes: the most recent and calamitous were, the plague of 1743, which carried off in a few months 35,000 of the inhabitants; and an earthquake, which took place 40 years afterwards, and levelled one-half of the city with the ground. To the S. of Messina, about the middle of the Eastern side of the island, stands Catania, remarkable for having been visited by several

tremendous earthquakes : one of these, in 1693, completely laid it in ruins and destroyed 18,000 people. It has revived, however, with great splendour, and has much more the features of a metropolis than Palermo : most of the edifices have an air of magnificence unknown in other parts of the island, and the town has a title to rank among the elegant cities of Europe. Its university is celebrated through the whole island, and its inhabitants have always been noted for their superiority in politeness of manners over the other Sicilians. There are many religious edifices in Catania : one of these is remarkable as the dwelling-place of the successors of the Knights of Malta, so long the terror of the Crescent.

76. The volcano of Etna, or Gibello as it is also called, from the Arabic word *Gebel* signifying a *mountain*, is about 15 miles to the N. W. of Catania. The circumference of its base is upwards of 60 miles ; and thence it rises, like a pyramid, to the height of 10,940 feet above the level of the sea. The crater is upwards of two miles in circuit, and presents the appearance of an inverted cone. The mountain contains an epitome of the different climates throughout the globe ; presenting at once all the seasons of the year, and almost every variety of produce. It is accordingly divided into three distinct zones or regions, known by the names of the cultivated region, the woody region, and the desert region : in the first of these, pasture, corn fields, vineyards, and fruit trees of nearly every description, are extremely abundant ; here are said to be no less than 77 towns and villages, numerous monasteries, and a population of 120,000 souls. In succeeding to the woody or temperate region, the scene changes ; instead of suffocating heat, the air has a genial freshness ; the surface and soil present great inequalities, and are covered with a variety of trees which diminish in size towards the upper zone. In this last vegetation entirely disappears, and the surface is a dreary expanse of snow and ice. The summit presents a prospect of unvalled beauty and grandeur, embracing a wide extent of land and sea : in a clear day, Etna may be distinctly seen from Valetta, the capital of Malta, a distance of 112 miles. The number of eruptions on record, to which this volcano has been subject, is said to amount to 81 ; but of these not more than 10 are supposed to have issued from the highest crater, the others having torn openings in the sides of the mountain.

77. Palermo, the capital of Sicily and the residence of the Viceroy, stands on the Northern coast of the island, towards its W. extremity : it is situated on the Western shore of a bay, in a beautiful plain, presenting the appearance of a magnificent garden, filled with fruit trees and watered by rivulets. The form of the city is nearly circular : it is fortified, though in a weak manner, towards the sea ; but on the land side it is altogether open. The cathedral of Palermo is one of the finest Gothic buildings in Sicily. There are some catacombs in the city, the property of certain monks, celebrated for the singular property of converting into mummies the bodies which are placed in them, and which are therefore arranged in attitudes as whimsical as they are disgusting. Palermo is likewise celebrated for a splendid festival,

which is annually held in honour of St. Rosalia, who once under the ingenious management of a few friars, delivered the city from the plague, after she had been dead and buried for five centuries.

78. Syracuse has lost all its ancient magnificence and splendour; but still possesses an excellent and beautiful harbour, capable of receiving vessels of the greatest burden, and of containing a numerous fleet. At present, the only inhabited part is the island formerly called Ortigia, with a small portion of the old Acradina: it is walled, and entered by drawbridges. The cathedral is the ancient temple of Minerva. The catacombs still exist, and form a remarkable feature of Syracuse: they are only seven or eight feet high; but their extent is such that they form a kind of subterraneous city, with a number of narrow streets, some of which are said to be a mile long. The speaking grotto, or, as it was called by the ancients, the Ear of Dionysius, is a cave 170 feet long, 60 high, and about 80 wide, with, so strong an echo, that the slightest noise made in it is heard in the small church near the entrance, in which Dionysius is said to have listened to the conversation of his prisoners. The fountain of Arethusa has lost nearly all its poetry, being now the resort of the laundresses of Syracuse.

MALTESE ISLANDS.

79. The Maltese Islands lie about 45 miles from the Southern shore of Sicily, and 150 to the E. of the coast of Africa, in the neighbourhood of Cape Bon: they are nearly due north from Tripoli on the coast of Africa, the distance between them being 190 miles. They are composed of the three islands Malta, Gozo, and Comino, of which the first is by far the largest: their superficial extent is about 120 miles, and their estimated population about 100,000 souls, of whom nearly 80,000 are in Malta alone, which is thus one of the most populous spots in the globe.

80. In the year 1800 Malta was taken by the British, and has since continued in our possession, having been confirmed to us by the treaty of Paris in 1814. The Maltese, however, have been allowed to retain the greater part of their ancient rights and usages, amongst others, that of electing their own magistrates: the civil and military governors are both British. In no fortress in Europe are the defences more imposing: admiration is excited in Gibraltar by the work of nature, in Malta, by the labours of art. The coast of Malta is in general steep and rugged, the only good harbours being those of Marza and Marza Murzet: these are separated by a

peninsula on which stands Valetta, the chief town, built in 1566 by the knights of St. John, and called after a celebrated grand master of the order; its present population is estimated at 36,000 souls.

81. Malta was formerly possessed by the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem. This order, founded about the end of the eleventh century, was originally a charitable institution, but its members, called Hospitalers, became military, and took the title of Knights shortly afterwards. On the final loss of Jerusalem by the Christians, they retired to Acre, which they defended valiantly against the Turks. They subsequently followed the king of Cyprus, and in 1310 took Rhodes, but 200 years afterwards, this latter island having fallen into the hands of the Turks, the knights retired into Candia, and thence into Sicily. In the year 1530, the emperor Charles 5th, gave them the island of Malta, that they might defend his valuable possession, Sicily, against the Turks. Malta was then a barren rock, producing little else than fruit and seeds; it was likewise without any means of defence, and the knights therefore fortified it with much labour and address. Having greatly distinguished themselves by their enterprise and valour, Solymán, at that time Sultan, determined in 1564 to extirpate them. His first attempt on the island having failed, he afterwards sent an army of 30,000 men against it, provided with artillery and all the requisites for a grand attack. The siege that ensued has been the object of the most animated descriptions, and was certainly one of the most obstinate on record; but the Turks, after losing four months in reiterated attacks, and sacrificing a great part of their army, were obliged to re-embark, and from that time forebore from all farther attempts upon Malta. The Knights continued long afterwards to bear a part in the hostilities of the various Mediterranean powers against the Turks, but nothing of importance occurred in their history till 1798. In that year, the French expedition to Egypt, under the command of Bonaparte, suddenly appeared before Malta, and summoned it to surrender: after a short delay, the knights submitted without resistance, and Malta received a French garrison. The naval superiority of the British soon enabled them to blockade the island; but the works being too strong for attack, it remained in the hands of the French till the year 1800, when being pressed by famine, it surrendered.

CHAPTER XIV.

OTTOMAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

1. THE Turkish or Ottoman Empire extends over parts of Europe and Asia, from the Adriatic Sea on the West, to the frontiers of Persia on the East; it comprehends some of the *most celebrated* countries of ancient history,

both sacred and profane, and which, though they were once amongst the most beautiful and flourishing in the whole world, exhibit now nothing but desolation and misery under the despotic government of the Crescent. The power of the Turks, especially in this quarter of the globe, is now rapidly diminishing: they have lately lost the Greek part of their territory, which has been erected into an independent kingdom, under the protection of Great Britain, France, and Russia. The two grand divisions of the Ottoman Empire are Turkey in Europe and Turkey in Asia; it likewise extends its pretensions over parts of Africa, claiming the sovereignty of Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers, but its authority in these countries hangs on so doubtful a tenure as to be little more than nominal.

2. The Turks made no figure in history till about the beginning of the seventh century, when issuing from their obscure retreat between the Black and Caspian Seas, they laid waste Persia, and joined the Romans against its king Chosroes: shortly afterwards they obtained possession of a portion of Armenia, called from them Turcomania. A part of them subsequently marched into Persia, being invited to aid the Caliph of Bagdad against his rebellious Emirs; it was upon this occasion that their general, Ingrul Beg, assumed the title of "Lieutenant to the Commander of the Faithful:" this was only the prelude to a farther usurpation. In the 13th century, the Turks being harassed in their new possessions by other Tartar tribes, retreated to Asia Minor, which they had previously conquered, and established the head-quarters of their government at Iconium in Cilicia.

3. Their dominions, divided for some time into petty states, were united under Ottoman (Othman or Osman, as he is also called), who assumed the title of Sultan, and fixed the seat of his empire at Prusa, in Bithynia, about the beginning of the 14th century. His successors, supported by fresh hordes of enthusiastic followers, extended their conquests over the adjacent parts of Asia, Africa, and Europe, occupying Syria, Egypt, and eventually the territory that remained to the Greek emperors. Adrianople was taken by them in the year 1360, but it was not till 1453, that they gained possession of Constantinople, under Mahomet the 2d, who put an end to the Roman Empire in the East. Greece and its islands were afterwards overrun: and the Southern part of Hungary likewise fell into their possession, though it was at first attacked without any success. Moldavia and Walachia were occupied, Poland threatened, and on the whole the Turkish arms met with few checks of importance till the latter part of the 17th century. Since that period they have been kept in awe by several of the most important powers of Europe, with whom, however, they have frequently carried on long and desperate wars.

4. **TURKEY IN EUROPE** is bounded on the N. by the Empires of Austria and Russia, on the E. by the Empire, the Thracian Bosphorus, the Sea of Marmara, and the

Hellespont; on the S. by the *Ægean* Sea and the kingdom of Greece, and on the W. by the Adriatic Sea. It contains 162,600 square miles, and its population in 1828 is estimated to have amounted to 9,394,000 souls.

5. **PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS.** Turkey in Europe is in general a mountainous country. It is traversed by two great ranges, one of which runs from West to East, and the other from North to South. The former of these is the continuation of the Alps of Italy, and has been already mentioned as quitting that country at the Birnbaumer Wald and passing through Morlachia and Dalmatia into Turkey. It separates those Turkish rivers which run into the Danube, from those which flow into the G. of Venice and the Archipelago; and divides the provinces of Bosnia, Servia, and Bulgaria on the N., from those of Herzegovina, Albania, Macedonia, and Rumilia on the South. It is known in different parts by various names. Where it enters Turkey it is called *Terna-Gora*; on the frontiers of Albania it is named *Rachka* and *Tchar Dag*; on the borders of Macedonia it is known under the appellations of *Gliubotin*, *Egrison*, and *Ghiustendil*; and its continuation along the N. of Thrace is called the *Balkan*, or otherwise *Hæmus* and *Emneh*. It terminates on the shores of the Black Sea in C. *Eminch*, between the towns of *Bourgas* and *Varna*.

6. This range is connected on the N. with the Carpathians by means of a lower ridge, called the *Codja Balkan*, which quits the main range on the borders of Bulgaria, Rumilia, Macedonia, and Servia; it then trends N. W., crosses the R. Danube at *Orsova*, and joins that portion of the Carpathians which has been already described as separating Walachia from Hungary and Transylvania. The main range of the *Hæmus* likewise throws out several spurs to the Southward: amongst these may be mentioned the *Neprokop Dag* in Macedonia, between the rivers *Strymon* and *Nestus*; *Despoto Dag* in Rumilia between the rivers *Nestus* and *Maritza*; and *Stanches Dag* or the *Little Balkan*, likewise in Rumilia, between the R. *Maritza* and the Black Sea, which terminates at the Channel of Constantinople.

7. The second great range, running from N. to South, is that which in a general way is called the *Pindus*, and separates the provinces of Albania and Livadia on the W., from those of Macedonia and Thessaly on the East: it likewise divides those Turkish rivers which enter the G. of Venice from those which flow down into the Ar-

chipelago. It quits the *Hemus* at the N. extremity of Albania and Macedonia, between which provinces it is called *Magna Petrinia* and *Grammos*; farther S. it is known by several other names as *Agrafa*, *Samos*, and *Klytzos*, after which it traverses the Kingdom of Greece, and terminates in C. Matapan, the Southernmost point in the Continent of Europe.

8. Between Macedonia and Thessaly the *Pindus* throws off a minor ridge, called the *Volutra Mountains*, which terminates on the coast of the Archipelago, near the mouth of the R. *Salembria*, in M^t. *Olympus* or *Elymbó*, so celebrated in heathen mythology as the abode of the gods. Opposite to *Olympus*, on the S. side of the R. *Salembria*, rises another famous mountain named *Ossa* or *Kissoro*; it is connected with the ridge of *Plesnid* or *Zagora* [the ancient *Pelion*] which skirts the shores of the Archipelago and terminates opposite the I. of *Negropont*.

9. **PRINCIPAL RIVERS.** The greatest river of European Turkey is the *Danube*, which enters it on the borders of *Servia* and *Hungary*; and after having separated the province of *Bulgaria* from those of *Wallachia*, *Moldavia*, and *Bessarabia*, enters the *Black Sea* by three mouths. It rises in the *Black Forest* in Germany, and is 1,700 miles long. Its chief Turkish tributaries on the N. are, the *Pruth*, *Sereth*, *Jalomonitza*, *Argis*, *Alt*, and *Schyl*; on the S. are, the *Verbitza*, *Bosna*, *Dina*, *Morava*, *Isker*, and *Vid*. The Turkish rivers which enter the Archipelago are, the *Maritza* or *Hebrus*, the *Mesto* or *Nestus*, the *Stroma* or *Strymon*, the *Vardar*, the *Indje-Mauro*, the *Salembria* or *Peneus*, and the *Ellada*.

10. The R. *Maritza* is wholly in *Rumilia*, on the borders of which province and of *Macedonia* it takes its rise; it flows down from M^t. *Hassan*, and after a tortuous course of 284 miles, enters the Archipelago at the town of *Enos*. The *Nestus*, which separates *Rumilia* and *Macedonia*, rises close to the *Maritza*, and is 120 miles long; it flows into the Archipelago opposite the I. of *Thaso*. The *Stroma*, *Vardar*, and *Indje-Mauro*, are all three in the province of *Macedonia*. The source of the *Stroma* is in M^t. *Ghiustendil*, whence it flows with a S. course of 165 miles through L. *Tikinos* into the G. of *Contessa*. The R. *Vardar* rises in *Dober Dag* and flows S. E. for 175 miles into the G. of *Salonica*, where it meets the waters of the *Indje-Mauro* which rises in M^t. *Pindus*. The rivers *Salembria* and *Ellada* are both in the province of *Thessaly* and rise in M^t. *Pindus*: the former is 110 miles long, and enters the Archipelago at the vale of *Tempe* so highly praised for its romantic beauty.

11. The chief rivers in the Western part of Turkey are the *Narenta* in *Herzegovina*; the *Bojana* or river of

Scutari, the Drino, the Vojuzzo or Viosa, the Arta, and the Aspro Potamo or Achelous, in Albania: the last mentioned partly separates the Ottoman Empire from the Kingdom of Greece.

12. The R. Narenta rises in the mountains of Monte Negro, whence it flows with a tortuous course of 165 miles into the G. of Venice opposite the I. of Lesina. The Drino is composed of two branches, the White and the Black Drino; the latter, which is the more important, rises in M^t. Pindus and after traversing the L. of Okhrida, enters the Adriatic Sea near Alessio; it is 166 miles long. The Vojuzzo rises in M^t. Pindus on the borders of Thessaly and Macedonia, whence it flows with a N. W. course of 140 miles into the G. of Venice a little above the town of Valona. The R. Arta and the Aspro Potamo rise close to it; the former runs into the G. of Arta, and is but an inconsiderable river; the latter, which is 130 miles long, enters the Mediterranean Sea opposite the I. of Cephallonia.

13. **PRINCIPAL GULFS.** The G. of Bourgas is on the E. coast of Rumilia in the Black Sea; and on the S. shores of the same province, in the Archipelago, are the Gulfs of Saros and Enos, the latter being at the mouth of the R. Maritza. On the coast of Macedonia are the Gulfs of Contessa, Monte-Santo, Cassandra, and Salonica, all on the *Ægean* Sea: the Gulfs of Volo and Molo are on the S. shores of Thessaly, opposite the Northern extremity of Negropont. The only gulfs on the Adriatic are, the G. of Arta on the S. coast of Albania, and those of Valona and Scutari on the Western shores of the same province.

14. **LAKES.** In the N. E. extremity of Bulgaria is L. Rassein, which communicates with the Black Sea by several channels. In Macedonia are, L. Tikinos at the mouth of the R. Strymon; L. Betchik between the gulfs of Contessa and Salonica; and the L. of Castoria, at the foot of M^t. Pindus, and near the springs of one of the arms of the R. Indje-Mauro. In Albania are, the L. of Scutari on the frontiers of Monte-Negro, and not far from the G. of Venice; L. Okhrida at the foot of M^t. Pindus, near the source of the Black Drino R.; and L. Janina, in the Southern part of the province, celebrated for the ancient oracle of Dodona which was established on its shores. The only lake in Thessaly is L. Carlas in the E. part of the province; like that of Janina it has no communication with the sea.

15. **CAPES.** The chief Turkish Headlands on the Black Sea are, C. Calagrish, C. Eminch, and C. Ainada. On the *Ægean* Sea are, Helles Bournou, the S. extremity of Rumilia, C. Gremia, C. Monte-Santo, C. Drepano, C. Paillouri the Southernmost point of Macedonia, C. S. George and C. Trikeri the S. E. extremities of Thessaly. On the Adriatic Sea are C. Prevesa, C. Linguetta, C. Pali, and C. Dulcigno, all on the coast of Albania.

16. **STRAITS.** The Thracian Bosphorus or Channel of Constantinople is called Boghaz by the *Turks*; it separates the Continents of Europe and Asia, and unites the Black Sea with the Sea of Marmara: it is about 15 miles long, and half a mile wide in its narrowest part. The Hellespont or

Channel of the Dardanelles likewise separates Europe from Asia, and connects the Sea of Marmara with the Archipelago: it is 33 miles long, and about two-thirds of a mile wide in its narrowest part. It obtained its name from the ancient district Dardania in Asia, the Western shores of which it washed; but the appellation became more familiarly employed after the emperor Mahomet IVth. built the two castles called The Dardanelles, A. D. 1659, to defend the passage: these castles were built one on each side, a little to the S. of the ancient towns Sestus and Abydos. The Channel of Trikeri separates the S. coast of Thessaly from the N. extremity of the I. of Negropont. The Strait of Corfu separates the I. of this name from the W. shores of Albania. The Strait of Otranto divides Turkey from Italy, and connects the G. of Venice with the rest of the Mediterranean Sea: the distance from C. Linguetta in Albania to Otranto in Italy is 38 miles.

17. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The religion of the Turks is that of Mahomet, of the sect of Omar. The rule of their faith is the *Koran*, an incongruous mixture of sound and absurd doctrines, of grave and of trifling precepts. Their fasts are frequent and rigorous; the principal one, called the Ramadan, lasts for 28 days, and the merit of observing it consists in abstaining from food whilst the sun remains above the horizon. Their ablutions are very frequent, being not only prompted by the warmth of the climate, but enjoined as necessary by their creed, after a variety of occupations. The mosques, or churches, of the Mahometans are generally of a square figure, built with stone, and covered with gilded lead: they have mostly six minarets or towers, from the tops of which the people are called to prayer by the priests. No woman dares enter these consecrated edifices.

18. The Turkish government may be regarded as a model of the most detestable despotism. The power of the Sultan, or Grand Seignor, is altogether unchecked by any representative body; he is the sole fountain of honour and office; possesses absolute power of life and death over all his subjects, and disposes of their property precisely as he pleases. He is supposed to be virtually restrained from excessive outrages by the ordinances of the *Koran* (or Mahometan Bible), as well as by the decisions of the superior priests, and by certain usages which are believed to have acquired the force of laws; but neither ordinances nor usages are able to protect the life or property of any subject, whose wealth or ambition may have rendered him obnoxious to his Barbarian Chief.

19. The imperial mosques of Constantinople, Adrianople, and Broussa, have colleges, which are resorted to by young men intended for the professions of law and theology, from all the provinces of the empire, after they have quitted the common schools: here they are instructed in the law of Mahomet, in religious, civil, and criminal jurisprudence, and made in some measure acquainted with the subtle commentaries on the Koran. Their teachers are ignorant of the very rudiments of science, but assume the office of bestowing certain honorary degrees upon their pupils. Literature and the arts, whether useful or ornamental, are uncultivated and despised: the models of ancient Greece are wholly lost in this uninquisitive and semibarbarous race; in fact, statuary and painting are forbidden by their faith as unlawful imitations of the works of God.—There are, likewise, in the Turkish provinces many Christians of the Greek Church, as well as of other sects, besides a great number of Jews, all of whom enjoy a legal toleration by paying an exorbitant tribute.

20. The Turkish law maintains that the property of all persons in the employ of the State is the Sultan's, and allows of his exercising his cupidity over them to its full extent, as well as of his putting an end to their lives if he should think fit so to do: and as if this were not sufficient scope for the purposes of vengeance or envy, he is likewise permitted to delegate this dangerous authority to his ministers and some of his inferior officers. The prime minister is called the Grand Vizier, and is by his office Commander in chief; when in the field, his functions at court are discharged by a Caimacan or deputy: the Kioga Bey is the lieutenant of the Grand Vizier, and through his hands all papers must pass before coming into the hands of the latter personage. The office of the Reis Effendi is a mixture of that of Chancellor and Foreign Secretary; and it is he who signs all orders relative to the army and finance; the finance minister is called Defterdar. The Pachas, or governors of provinces, are charged not only with the civil and military authority, but, by a convenient mixture of powers, likewise act as farmers general of the revenue of their respective provinces. A pacha of the first class is termed a Pacha of three tails, and has a right to punish capitally any subordinate functionary. The Sangiak Beys are the governors of districts under the pachas, and invested like them with both civil and military functions. The Divan, or cabinet council, was formerly composed of six pachas of the first character for experience; but it is now limited to the Mufti, the Grand Vizier, and the Kioga Bey. The Ulema are a numerous, and rather a respectable body, whose functions consist in expounding the Koran, and in applying its injunctions to the circumstances of the times. They thus combine the character of clergy and lawyers, having at their head the Grand Mufti, whose decrees are considered by the public as the voice of inspiration, though they necessarily possess sufficient pliability to accommodate themselves to the will of the court: and in return for this complacency the Sultan allows that every law which he promulgates, and all his declarations of war, must receive the sanction of the Grand Mufti. The Imans, or priests, are altogether inferior to, and distinct from, the Ulema, their duty being merely to perform public worship in the mosques.

21. TURKEY IN EUROPE is generally divided by us Europeans into 12 great provinces; viz. Moldavia, Wallachia, Bulgaria, Rumilia or Thrace, Macedonia, Servia, Bosnia, Turkish Croatia, Herzegovina, Monte Negro, Albania, and Thessaly. But the Turks divide it into two great divisions governed by a *beglerbeg*, Rumilia or

Romania, and Bosnia, excluding the provinces of Walachia and Moldavia, which are subject to a higher jurisdiction; indeed they may be considered as independent provinces, though tributary to Turkey, as they are both under the protection of Russia. These divisions are portioned out into 11 *pachalics* or governments; viz. Rumilia Sophia, Rustchuk, Widin, Belgrade, Bosnia, Scutari, Janina, Egripo, the Archipelago, and Candia. There is likewise another subdivision of the country into 38 Sangiaks, excluding the two provinces Moldavia and Walachia, mentioned above.

22. These several divisions, together with their chief towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

Provinces.	Sangiaks, &c.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1828.
TRIBUTARY GOVERNMENTS: { Moldavia -	Moldavia -	Jessy -	30,000
{ Walachia -	Walachia -	Bukarest -	55,000
EJALET BOSNA, OR GOVERNMENT OF BOSNIA:	Bosnia {	Novi Bazar -	8,000
		Zvornik -	6,000
		Srebern timer -	1,500
		Trawn timer -	8,000
	Turkish Croatia }	Banialouk -	15,000
		Hersegovina	
	Hersek -	Mostar -	12,000
	Servia {	Semendria -	10,000
		Belgrade -	30,000
		Aladschahissar or Kruchovat -	6,000
		Veldscheterin or Vousitrin	5,000
EJALET ROUM-ILI, OR GOVERNMENT OF RUMILIA:	Bulgaria {	Widin -	25,000
		Sophia -	40,000
		Nikopol -	10,000
		Silistria -	20,000
	Rumilia or Thrace {	Tchirmen -	8,000
		Edreneh or Adrianople -	80,000
		Kirk-Kilissia -	10,000
		Viza -	4,000
		Istambol or Constantinople -	598,000
		Gallipoli -	17,000

Provinces.	Sangiaks, &c.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1828.
EJALET ROUM-ILI, OR GOVERNMENT OF RUMILIA : (continued.)	Macedonia {	Ghiustendil -	Ghiustendil - 10,000
		Uskup -	Uskup - 11,000
		Salonika -	Salonika - 70,000
	Thessaly {	Tirhala or Tricala -	Tricala - 12,000
	Monte Negro {	Iskenderieh or Scutari -	Scutari - 18,000
		Dukagin -	Pechia - 5,000
		Perserin or Prisrendi -	Prisrendi - 16,000
		El Bassan -	El Bassan - 8,000
	Albania {	Okhrida -	Okhrida - 3,500
		Aulona or Valona -	Valona - 6,000
		Delonia or Delvino -	Delvino - 10,000
		Janina -	Janina - 40,000
		Thaso -	Thaso - 1,000
EJALET DJEZAIR, OR INSULAR GOVERNMENT :	Egean Islands {	Midillii -	Samotraki - 800
			Imbro - 1,000
			Lemno - 1,500
	Candia {	Candia -	Candia - 15,000
		Retimo -	Retimo - 6,000
		Canea -	Canea - 4,000

23. The metropolis of the Ottoman Empire is Constantinople, or Estamboul as it is called by the Turks ; it is the residence of the Grand Seignor, and the seat of the supreme authorities, as well as of the Greek Patriarch, and Armenian and Roman Catholic Archbishops. It is situated on a peninsula, or promontory, composed of seven hills, rising from the Sea of Marmara and the Bosphorus in the shape of an amphitheatre, and forming an irregular triangle, the circuit of which is about 13 miles. On the Western or land side of this triangle stands the ancient wall of the emperor Theodosius, about five miles in length, and still bearing the marks of the breach effected in it by the Turks in 1453. It has suffered chiefly from the effects of time ; its ivy-mantled towers, its great height, and crumbling appearance, give it the likeness of a succession of ruinous

castles: it had formerly eighteen gates, but there are now only seven. There are likewise walls along the two other sides of the city, towards the Sea of Marmara, and the Bosphorus, which are from 14 to 20 feet in height, and flanked at intervals with towers. The name of *The Porte*, or *The Sublime Porte*, by which the Turkish Power is distinguished, is said to be derived from one of the gates of the palace towards the Propontis, called the *Porta Aurea*, which is a heavy mass like a bastion, erected by Mahomet the 2d, shortly after his capture of the city: others, however, suppose it to be so called from the custom which obtained amongst the ancient Asiatics of going to the gates of their princes to attend them. The population of Constantinople is a point of much dispute; it is estimated, however, on pretty fair grounds at 598,000 souls: of these, about 300,000 are followers of Mahomet, being either Turks or Tartars; 200,000 are Greeks; 30,000 Jews; and the remainder, Franks i. e. civilized Europeans.

24. The greater part of the suburbs of Constantinople are entirely open, so that it could make but little resistance to a land force: towards the sea, however, it is defended by the strong current which sets through the Bosphorus from the Euxine to the Propontis with such violence, as to be of considerable inconvenience to the harbour itself. This harbour, one of the finest in the whole world, both for security and convenience, is on the Northern side of the city; from the curve it describes, and from the rich cargoes that were once wasted thither, it obtained at an early period the name of the Golden Horn, which it retains at the present day: it is of sufficient depth for the largest vessels, and is said to be capable of containing 1,200 sail of the line. Indeed, the whole situation of Constantinople displays all the advantages of a city built on chosen ground, uniting, as it were, the two most flourishing quarters of the globe: the seven eminences on which it is erected rise above each other in beautiful succession, and are crowned in the back ground by the verdant summits of the Little Balkan. But whatever may be the exterior beauty of the city, the interior is very different; the streets being in general narrow, gloomy, and filthy: the houses are mostly low, and built of wood, and from the slightness of their structure, as well as from the habitual improvidence of the Turks, conflagrations are of frequent occurrence. The Seraglio, or palace, with its gardens, occupies one of the seven hills upon which Byzantium formerly stood. It consists of a vast assemblage of buildings inhabited by the Sultan and his court, and by the officers of government; the part occupied by the women is called the Harem. The castle of The Seven Towers was repaired and enlarged by Mahomet the 2d. who appropriated it as a place of safety for his treasure, and as a state prison; three of the seven towers were thrown down by an earthquake in 1768; those which remain are vast octagons, with conical roofs resembling windmills.

25. There are in Constantinople nearly 500 mosques: the principal ones

are to be met with in the squares and public places, being generally surrounded with cypress trees, and provided with fountains. The oldest and most interesting of them all is that of St. Sophia, which was originally erected by Constantine the Great, but being destroyed during a sedition, was built with greater sumptuousness and elegance by the emperor Justinian. Its form is quadrangular, the length from East to West being 270 feet, and its breadth from North to South 240 feet; it has a cupola which rests on pillars of marble, and four minarets which were added by the Turkish emperor Selim 2d.: the pavement is entirely of marble, worked in different ornamental compartments. All the interior of the dome is lined with mosaic, disposed into figures and ornamental work; but there is a degree of bad taste in several of its interior decorations, and a want of order in the piers and buttresses around it. The building appears to the greatest advantage when illuminated for a Turkish festival; at other times it is very gloomy, owing to the great want of light. The number of Christian churches in Constantinople is about 23; they have externally the appearance of private houses, no spires or bells being permitted but in the mosques; this want, however, is compensated in some by the elegance of their interior. One of the finest is the patriarchal church of the Greeks, in which are the remains of St. Euthymia and the empress Theodora. There are still many ancient monuments existing in different parts of Constantinople, for the Turks are in general too indolent and too indifferent to make much change in them. But it cannot be expected that a city, which for nearly four centuries has been in the hands of an ignorant and bigoted nation, possessing no ideas of architecture, comfort, or even of cleanliness, should have been able to preserve very many of its edifices from the destroying grasp of such a barbarian hand. The suburb of Galata stands opposite to the Seraglio, on the Northern side of the harbour; it is built on a declivity, and is inhabited only by merchants and seafaring people. On the heights above it is Pera built of wood and burnt bricks, and principally occupied by individuals in the suites of ambassadors to the Porte from the various European Powers. On an adjacent hill stands the suburb of St. Demetri, chiefly inhabited by Greeks. Scutari, too, is frequently reckoned a suburb of the great city, but very improperly so, for it is not only separated from it by the Bosphorus, but actually stands in another quarter of the globe, and is, as it always has been, a distinct town of itself.

26. About 120 miles to the N. W. of Constantinople is Adrianople, or Edreneh as it is called by the Turks; it stands on the banks of the R. Maritza, in the centre of the province of Rumilia, and is looked upon as the second city in European Turkey. The Turks obtained possession of it nearly 100 years before they took Constantinople, and made it the seat of their empire till the latter city fell into their hands. Its situation is very pleasant and fertile, but the climate is unhealthy; the Maritza, which is navigable to its mouth at Enos in the *Ægean Sea*, materially promotes both inland and foreign trade. The city is about eight miles in circuit, and contains a palace, several mosques, a spacious exchange,

and many other public buildings; it still continues a favourite place of retreat with the Sultans, for different reasons; at one time for pleasure, at another to avoid the plague, and sometimes to withdraw from a political storm in the metropolis.

27. To the N. E. of Adrianople, on the shores of the Euxine Sea, are the ports of Bourgas and Siveboli; and above them, on the Northern side of the Hæmus or Balkan, is Varna, another important sea-port, which was taken by the Russians, in 1828; the last mentioned town contains about 16,000 inhabitants. Schoumla is situated in the Eastern part of Bulgaria, about forty miles to the W. of Varna, and rather farther from Silistria, on the banks of the Danube; it has a strong castle, or rather a set of castles, commanding the defile in which it is built, and which is formed by a spur of the Hæmus, about midway between the main ridge and the R. Danube. Owing to its great strength, both natural and artificial, it is generally used by the Turks for the assemblage of troops, or for their winter-quarters, during their wars with any power attacking them from the North: it contains about 20,000 inhabitants. But the metropolis of Bulgaria is Sophia, or Triaditza as it is also called, situated near the Western extremity of the province, at the foot of M^t. Balkan, and on a branch of the R. Isker, which is a tributary of the Danube. It is one of the richest and most beautiful cities in the Ottoman Empire, but is without walls, and, like all other Turkish towns, exceedingly filthy: it is one of the greatest thoroughfares in Turkey, as it lies on the direct road from Hungary to Constantinople.

28. Bukarest, the capital of Walachia, and the residence of the Hospodar or prince, stands nearly in the centre of the province, on the R. Dombovitz, which joins the Argis, and so enters the Northern bank of the Danube: it is about seven miles in circumference, and is partly fortified. The houses are for the most part wretched clay huts, yet there are several stately edifices of stone to be met with; the common pavement of the streets is composed of wooden logs. The inhabitants are Walachians, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews; there are very few Turks to be met with in it. The prevailing religion is that of the Greek church, but both Lutherans and Roman Catholics enjoy free toleration. Here also are various classical schools and a respectable Greek college. The town was taken, in 1769, by the Russians, who held it for five years, and by the Austrians, in 1789; but the latter power restored it at the peace of Sistow: it is likewise remarkable for a treaty of peace which was concluded here, in 1812, between the Russians and the Sublime Porte.

29. The famous city of Belgrade is situated in the Northern part of Servia, and on the frontiers of Hungary, at the confluence of the Danube and Save: its importance as a fortress, and as the key of Hungary, has made it an object of fierce contention between the Austrians and Turks. It is enclosed with high walls, strong towers, and a triple ditch, and is otherwise very strongly fortified. The bulk of the population consists of Turks, there being very few Greek families in it; there are likewise some Servians, Rascians, Gypsies, and Jews. This important fortress was taken by Solymán, the Turkish emperor, in 1522, retaken by the Imperialists in 1688, but lost again two years afterwards. It remained in the hands of the Turks till 1717, when it capitulated to Prince Eugene, and was secured to the emperor by the peace of Passarowitz; but the Austrians were compelled to surrender it to the Turks in 1739: they, however, retook it fifty years afterwards,

but were compelled to restore it at the peace of 1791. Since that period it has become the most important place on the frontiers of the two countries, and the great staple for their commerce.

30. The province of Albania, which extends along the Adriatic and Ionian Seas from the borders of Dalmatia to Greece, is inhabited by a brave but ignorant people, who have often signalized themselves in war; they are called Arnauts by the Turks, and are characterized by their hardihood and great bodily strength, by their activity and courage, and by their simple mode of life: the majority of them profess themselves disciples of the Greek church. Albania was the country of the famous prince George Castriot, generally known by the name of Scanderbeg, who, with a small army, opposed for many years all the power of the Turks, and beat them in twenty-two battles. At his death, he left his country to the Venetians; but they were unable to maintain the inland part of it, which was accordingly soon reduced by Mahomet the 2d, and his successors finally made themselves masters of the whole province.

31. The chief town of Albania is Janina, or Joannina as it is also written, situated in the Southern part of the province, on the Western shores of a eponominal lake, and not far from the site of the old oracle of Dodona. It is about five miles in circumference, and is surrounded by a wall; it possesses two tolerably respectable academies, and the inhabitants are represented as more polished and better educated than in almost any other Greek town; they consist chiefly of Greeks and Albanians, with a few Turks and Jews. Janina was founded in the 15th century, and in the beginning of the 19th it became famous as the capital of the late monster Ali Pacha, a chief who exercised unlimited power, and brought under his dominion not only the province which had been originally committed to his charge, but the whole of Albania and a considerable part of Thessaly. By extortion and rapine he contrived to secure himself an ample revenue, and to defend himself from the vengeance of the Porte by a powerful standing army; but he fell a victim at last to his own perfidy and cruelty.

32. About 30 miles to the S. W. of Janina, and about 10 from the Ionian Sea, lies the district of Souli, the country of the brave Souliotes, who defended themselves for nearly 20 years against the invasions of Ali Pacha. They were a tribe of Greeks, about 10,000 in number, who maintained themselves for some time in the form of an independent republic: their country contained about 18 villages, and was almost surrounded by inaccessible mountains. It was not till the year 1803 that Ali Pacha succeeded in depriving them of their liberty, when many of those who escaped from his barbarity, took service in Russia and France: their country is at present, like all the rest of Albania, subject to the Porte. Farther S. is Arta, situated on the left bank of a river of the same name, which runs into the Gulf of Arta; it is the residence of several European consuls, and its inhabitants, about 6,000 in number, carry on a considerable trade. Valona, or Avlona as it is also called, stands on a gulf of the same name, about the centre of Albania, and opposite the South Eastern extremity of Italy; it has an indifferent port, but its situation renders it an important place, and adds materially to its commerce.

33. Next to Constantinople, Salonica is by far the most important place in point of commerce; it is conveniently and delightfully situated at the head of the Gulf of Salonica, on the declivity of a hill, and the approach to it from the sea is very imposing. The domes and minarets of mosques, together with other *buildings*, *environed* with cypresses, give it an air of *splendour*; but, like other Turkish towns, its interior by no means corres-

ponds with its external magnificence. It is surrounded by a lofty stone wall above five miles in circumference, which ascends in a triangular form from the sea, and is surmounted by a fortress with seven towers. The population is about one-half Turks, the remainder being Greeks, Jews, and Franks (i. e. English, French, Dutch, and Italians, all of whom have consuls here). In the year 1313 it was ceded by the Greek emperor to the Venetians, who were dispossessed of it shortly afterwards by the Turks under Amurath the First.

34. The island of Candia or Crete, called also Kirid by the Turks, continued under the dominion of the Emperors of the East until the year 823, when it was overrun by the Arabs: it was recovered, however, in 960. The Genese ceded it to Boniface, marquis of Montferrat, who in 1204 sold it to the Venetians. It remained in their possession till the middle of the 17th century, when the Turks made themselves masters of it after a disastrous war of 20 years; the whole island was secured to them by the peace of 1699, with the exception of the fortresses Suda and Spinalonga, which were likewise delivered up to them at the beginning of the following century: since this period Candia has continued in the almost undisturbed possession of the Ottoman Porte. It is divided by the Turks into the three pachalics of Candia, Retimo, and Canea, the two last being subject in a manner to the first, the governor of which resides at Candia: the whole island contains nearly 300,000 inhabitants, of whom about 150,000 are Greeks, the remainder being chiefly Turks.

35. Candia, the capital of the island, stands about the centre of its Northern shore; it is defended by walls, trenches, and outworks, which enabled it to stand a siege of 24 years by the Turks, who took it in 1669; it is of a semicircular figure, and nearly four miles in circumference. It was a flourishing little city when in the hands of the Venetians; but, owing to the insecurity of property under the despotic sway of the Crescent, it is now a very wretched and inferior town: its harbour, which was once capable of containing many large vessels, has been so neglected, that it is now nearly choked up with sand. Retimo, or Rhetzmo as it is also called, is the capital of the central province of the island, and lies likewise on its Northern coast, about 35 miles to the W. of the city of Candia. Beyond this, in the same direction, is Canea, the capital of the Western province, and the second town in the island; it is a neat little place, the buildings being nearly all Venetian, and is the residence of the consuls-general of Great Britain and France.

The remainder of the Ottoman Empire will be found described under the Continent of Asia.

CHAPTER XV.

KINGDOM OF GREECE.

1. THE Kingdom of Greece touches to the N. upon European Turkey; on all the other sides it is washed by

sea. The frontier-line between it and Turkey extends in the R. Achelous now called Aspro Potamo, along the foot of Mt. Ceta or Catavothra Vouno, to the Gulf of Molo Zeitoun, which last it reaches at the mouth of the R. Irida. This is the continental territory of Greece, but the kingdom likewise includes the Island of Negropont or Egripo, the island of Skyro, and all the Cyclades between the latitudes 36° . and 39° . N. and as far Eastward as 26° . $40'$ E. Longitude. The whole of this territory comprehends a superficial extent of about 14,200 square miles, and a population (as estimated in 1828) of about 496,000 souls. Till within these few years, it formed the Southern part of the dominions of the Sublime Porte in this quarter of the globe, but it is now separated into a separate kingdom, under the protection of Great Britain, Russia, and France.

2. PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS. No country in Europe except Switzerland is so mountainous in its whole extent as Greece, being traversed in every direction by several ranges, some of which nearly attain the height of *perpetual congelation*, or that altitude at which water ceases to be a fluid and constant freezing takes place. The range of Mt. Pindus enters Greece on the borders of the provinces of Albania, Thessaly, and Livadia. Here it sets off a spur to the E. anciently named Ceta and now Catavothra Vouno, which terminates on the shores of the Archipelago in the famous pass of Thermopylæ, or *Therma* as it is now called. The main range of the Pindus, however, continues trending to the S. E. through the whole of Livadia and finally terminates to the S. of Athens in C. Colonna, so called from the ruined columns of a famous temple of Minerva which stood there. Betwixt this cape and the spot where the Pindus enters Greece there are many elevated summits renowned in ancient history and poetry, such as Mt. Parnassus now called Lyakoura, Mt. Helicon now called Zagora, Mt. Cithæron now Elatea, Mt. Parnes now Ozia, Mt. Pentelicus now Pentele, and Mt. Hymettus now Trello-vouno. There is a little range of mountains, called Paleo-Vouni, connected with the Pindus, intersecting the narrow *Isthmus of Corinth*, by which the Mo-

rea in connected with the remainder of continental Greece.

3. There are two great mountain-ranges in the Morea, one in its Northern part and the other in its Southern. The former runs from C. Tornese opposite the I. of Zante to C. Skylo in the Ægean Sea, and is known in different portions by the names of S^a. Meri, Olonos, Chelmos, Zyria, and Didymo. The Eastern range called Mallevo diverges from this at M^t. Zyria to the S. W. of Corinth, and coasts the Eastern part of the peninsula till it terminates in C. Malea or S. Angelo: near Tripolitza it throws off an arm named M^t. Roino, or as it is called farther Southward Pente Dactylon, which terminates in C. Matapan the Southern extremity of the whole continent of Europe.

4. PRINCIPAL RIVERS. The rivers of Greece are not now found to merit that importance which would seem to attach to them from the glowing descriptions of the ancients. The two rivers Fidari and Morno are in Livadia and have their sources in M^t. Pindus; the former, which is 50 miles long, enters the Mediterranean a little E. of Messalongia, and the latter, which is 28 miles long, runs into the G. of Lepanto close to Lepanto. Farther Eastward is the little rivulet Sizaliska which runs down from M^t. Parnassus into the B. of Salona; it is chiefly remarkable as receiving the waters of the Castalian Spring, so famous amongst the ancients as being sacred to the Muses. The R. Gavrios or Mauro-Potamo rises in the Eastern side of M^t. Pindus, and runs with a S. E. course of 60 miles into the L. of Topolias: to the S. E. of it is the R. Asopo, which flows Eastward from the neighbourhood of M^t. Helicon into the Archipelago opposite the I. of Negropont. The Ilissus or river of Athens is a little stream about 10 miles long, which during the summer months seldom reaches the sea.

5. The two greatest rivers in the Morea are the Ires or Eure, the ancient Eurotas, and the Roupbia the ancient Alpheus, which both rise close to each other in M^t. Pente Dactylon. The former runs S. E. into the G. of Kolokythia, and is 55 miles long; the latter flows

h a N. W. course of 60 miles into the G. of Arcadia. Besides these we may mention the smaller rivers Igliaco which enters the Mediterranean opposite the I. of Zante; Kamenitza which flows into the G. of Patras; the Izza and Kalavrita which discharge themselves into the G. of Lepanto; the Phanitza which enters the G. of Argos; the Pirnatza and Kokla which run into the G. of Kalamata.

GULFS, LAKES, &c. The Gulf of Lepanto lies between the N. coast of the Morea and the S. coast of Arcadia; it contains the four minor bays of Salona, Aspiditza, Livadostro, and Corinth. The G. of Patras opens to the Westward of the G. of Lepanto, and connects it with the Mediterranean Sea. The G. of Arcadia is on the Western coast of the Morea; the Gulfs of Kalamata and Kolokythia are on its Southern shores, the former opening to the W. of C. Matapan, and the latter to the E. The G. of Nauplia runs up on the E. coast of the Morea, and the G. of Egina between this peninsula and the mainland of Greece. The only inland sea of any consequence in Greece is L. Topolias, in the Eastern part of Livadia, already mentioned as receiving the waters of the R. Gavrios.

CAPES. The principal headlands of continental Greece are, C. Marathona its Eastern extremity; C. Corone the Southernmost point of Livadia; C. Skyllon the Easternmost point of the Morea; C. Matapan the Southernmost cape in the whole continent of Europe; C. Malea or St. Angelo the S. E. point of the Morea, and C. Gallo its S. W. extremity; C. Tornese its Easternmost point, and C. Drepano its Northernmost. Skrophia, near the mouth of the R. Achelous, is the S. W. extremity of Livadia.

STRAITS. The upper part of the strait by which the I. of Negropont is separated from the mainland of Greece, is called the Channel of Talanda, and its lower part the Channel of Negropont: the narrowest part of this passage was anciently, as it still is, called Euripus, and across it at the town of Negropont there is a bridge connecting the island with the main. The St. of Lepanto lies between the Northern extremity of the Morea and

an opposite promontory of Livadia; it is about a mile broad, and connects the G. of Lepanto with that part of the Mediterranean which is called the G. of Patras.

9. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The established religion of Greece is that of the Eastern or Greek Church, so named in contradistinction to the Western or Latin Church, or as it is commonly called, the Church of Rome. The Greeks acknowledge, as the rule of their faith, the Holy Scriptures and the decrees of the first seven *general* councils; but no private person has a right to explain, for himself or others, either the declarations of Scripture or the decisions of these councils; the Patriarch and his brethren being the only persons who are authorized to consult these oracles, and to declare their meaning. According to the treaty entered into between the three great protecting Powers, the government of Greece is monarchical and hereditary, and it enjoys all the political, administrative, and commercial rights, attached to complete independence.

10. The Nicene and Athanasian creeds are allowed by the Greek Church; they likewise admit the use of pictures to instruct the ignorant, and to assist the devotion of others by these sensible representations. The invocation of saints is likewise received by them, as are also private confession and extreme unction. As to the eucharist, it has been disputed whether transubstantiation was the doctrine of the ancient Greek Church, the Protestants maintaining the negative, while the Roman Catholics contend for the affirmative: but whether it was maintained in the Ancient Greek Church or not, it is the doctrine of the present Russian Church, the most powerful state in which the Greek creed is professed. The lay communicants receive both the elements together. Predestination is a dogma of the Greek Church, and a very prevailing opinion among the people of Russia. The Greek Church admits prayers and services for the dead as an ancient and pious custom, and even prayers for the remission of their sins, but it disallows the doctrine of purgatory, and determines nothing dogmatically concerning the state and condition of departed souls. It also pays a regard to the relics of saints and martyrs, of which too superstitious a use is made. Supererogation, indulgences, and dispensations, are utterly disallowed in this Church; nor does it affect, like the Roman, the character of infallibility, but it still pretends to be the only true and orthodox Church.

11. The Russians, Georgians, and Mingrelians, adopt the doctrines and ceremonies of the Greek Church, though they are entirely free from the jurisdiction and authority of the Patriarch of Constantinople. Indeed, this prelate formerly enjoyed the privilege of a spiritual supremacy over the Russians, to whom he sent a bishop whenever a vacancy happened: but towards the conclusion of the 16th century this privilege ceased. The service of the Greek Church, as it is performed in Russia and elsewhere, is long and complicated; the greater part of it varies every day in the year,

Isaurian, when the bishops of Constantinople, seconded by the
and power of the emperors, withdrew from the jurisdiction of the
pontiff many provinces, over which they had hitherto exercised a
dominion. However, the schism, or total separation, did not take
place till the time of Photius, who was elected Patriarch of Constantinople
in the year 858, by the emperor Michael, in the place of Ignatius, whom
he drove from his see and sent into exile. Pope Nicholas I. took
the exile of Photius, decreed the election to be unwarrantable in a
held at Rome, and excommunicated Photius. The high-spirited
Pope, respected as the most learned and ingenious person of the age in
his lived, assembled a council at Constantinople shortly afterwards,
and the council, in compliment of excommunication, and declared Nicholas un-
worthy of his rank in the Church, and even of being admitted within the
of a Christian community.

The pretext alleged by the Roman prelate, in justification of his con-
science was the innocence of Ignatius; but the secret and moving spring
to have been a desire of recovering from the Greeks the provinces of
Macedonia, Epirus, Achaia, Thessaly, and Sicily, which the
emperor and Photius had removed from the jurisdiction of his see. The
Pope had demanded the restitution of these provinces by a solemn embassy;
his requisition being treated with contempt, gave rise to his zeal in the
name of justice and of Ignatius. The death of Photius might have ter-
minated the disputes between the Eastern and Western churches, if the
Roman pontiff had not been regardless of the demands of equity, as well
of the duty of Christian moderation. But this imperious lord of the
church indulged his vindictive zeal beyond measure, and would be satisfied
with nothing less than the open degradation of all the priests and bishops
ordained by Photius. The Greeks, on the other hand, were
sick of these unjust pretensions, and would not sub-
mit to them on any conditions. Hence the dispute between the two Churches

Church is professed not only in Greece and the Grecian Islands, but through considerable parts of Walachia, Moldavia, Egypt, Nubia, Libya, Arabia, Mesopotamia, Syria, Cilicia, and Palestine; all which are comprehended within the jurisdiction of the Patriarchs of Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem; to these may be added the whole of the Russian Empire in Europe, great part of Siberia in Asia, Astrakhan, Georgia, Mingrelia, &c. &c.

15. The modern Greek language is called the Romaic. It is the ancient Greek degraded by all the circumstances attendant on the lapse of many centuries, during a successive intercourse with the Romans, the Barbarians of the North, the Italians of the middle ages, and finally with the Turks. There prevails, however, a very great general identity between the ancient and modern languages, and on the whole they differ less from each other than the modern Italian does from the classical language of ancient Rome.

16. The two great divisions under which continental Greece is usually described are Livadia and the Morea; but these, again, are subdivided into several minor provinces, though their names and boundaries, owing to the infancy of the State, are as yet somewhat undecided. Besides these there are the islands of Negropont, Skyro, and the Cyclades or Dodekanisa, the chief of which are Andro, Tino, Zea, Naxia, Paro, Milo, Santorin, and Stampalia. The peninsula of The Morea is said to have derived its name from its shape resembling that of a young *mulberry-leaf*: it is connected with the mainland by the Isthmus of Corinth, which is only four geographical or *six* Greek miles long, whence its present name of Hexamilion. The ancient name of The Morea was Peloponnesus, and it is still frequently distinguished by this appellation.

17. The population of some of the chief towns of Greece (as estimated in 1828) is as follows:

Andro - - - 5,000	Kalavrita - - 1,000	Napoli di Ro- } 10,000
Arcadia - - - 1,500	Koron - - - 5,000	mania - - - }
Argos - - - 2,000	Lepanto - - 2,000	Navarino - - 1,500
Athens - - - 12,000	Livadia - - 10,000	Naxo - - - 1,000
Corinth - - - 4,000	Messalongia - 800	Patras - - - 6,000
Damala - - - 1,500	Milo - - - 1,000	Salona - - - 4,000
Egina - - - 4,000	Mistra - - - 4,000	Thebes - - - 2,500
Egripo - - - 15,000	Modon - - - 5,000	Tripolitza - - 12,000
Gastouni - - 3,000	Napoli di Mal- } 6,000	Vositza - - - 4,000
Hydra - - - 16,000	vasia - - - }	Zea - - - 1,000

18. The city of Athens, called also Athineh or Setines, though the metropolis of Greece, is now an insignificant town, and derives the only interest it possesses from the

many glorious recollections connected with it. It is at present a small open place, with streets which, whatever they may have anciently been, are extremely narrow and irregular. The houses are mostly mean and straggling, generally with large courts or areas before them. The most interesting object in the whole city is the Acropolis or citadel, of which a considerable portion is still in existence: the rock on which it stands is lofty, abrupt, and almost inaccessible; its summit is flat, and about three quarters of a mile in circuit. Athens contains about 12,000 inhabitants.

19. The Acropolis has been converted by the Turks into a fortress, and is surrounded by a thick rampart, in which there are various fragments of the ancient wall. What remains of the Parthenon, or Temple of Minerva, that splendid display of Athenian magnificence, is now converted into a mosque. The building called "the Tower of the Winds" is still entire; and the Cenotaph of Lysicrates, the only one of all those which were once so numerous as to form a street, is likewise in tolerable preservation. The ancient temple of Theseus is still entire, with the exception of the roof which is of modern construction. The Areopagus, or Hill of Mars, which was almost in the centre of ancient Athens, is outside of the present town, and has been used by the Turks as a burying-place. The Pnyx, the Stadium, and the Lyceum, can all be traced without difficulty. The ground on which the Academy stood is occupied by a modern house and garden, but the walks of the Peripatetics are said to be yet discoverable amidst the venerable olive trees with which they are shrouded. The Long Walls which connected Athens with its harbours, are entirely demolished, but their foundations have been traced by late travellers under the shrubs which cover the plain. The far-famed Ilissus and Cephissus are at the present day nearly dry, and hardly deserve the name of rivers, the scanty waters of the former being for the most part carried off in channels to the neighbouring vineyards and olive-grounds. The Piræus, or Harbour of Athens, now known by the names of Porto Leone and Porto Draco, is frequented by a few English and French traders, but retains in other respects scarcely a memorial of its ancient magnificence.

20. The town of Livadia, the capital of the province of this name, possesses nothing remarkable but what is connected with its antiquity: it carries on a tolerable trade, being the great connecting point between the Morea and Northern Greece. Messalongia, or Missolonghi, situated on a small gulf of the same name, on the North Western frontiers of Greece, was once a place of some little strength, but it was taken by the Turks a few years since, and reduced to ruins, after a brave resistance made there by its Greek garrison. The fortress of Napoli di Romania, or Nauplia, is situated at the head of a gulf of the same name, on the Eastern coast of the Morea. It stands on a rocky promontory, forming an excellent harbour capable of containing 150 ships of war: it is the best built place in the peninsula, and is tolerably well fortified: it is also a place of some commercial activity.

21. To the S. W. of Nauplia, in the interior of the Morea, stands Tripolitza, formerly the capital of the Morea and the residence of the Turkish pacha: it is still a place of some consequence, and one of the best peopled

towns in the whole kingdom. The town of Hydra is situate on the Western shore of a cognominal island, lying off the Eastern coast of the peninsula, and is said to contain more inhabitants than any other town in Greece, their number amounting to about 16,000 souls. Its population originated in a colony of Greeks, who fled hither to avoid the savagery of the Turks, after which period it became the centre of those guerrilla operations against their oppressors, which, under the protecting patronage mentioned above, have terminated in their complete independence. Hydriot sailors are considered the most intrepid navigators in the Mediterranean pelago.

REPUBLIC OF THE IONIAN ISLANDS.

22. The Republic of the Ionian Islands, or of the Seven Islands as it is also called, from its consisting of seven principal islands, lies to the West of Greece and of Southern Albania. The islands composing it are Corfu, Paxo, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cephallonia, Zante, and Cerigo. The territorial extent of the whole amounts to about 870 square miles, and its population was estimated in 1828 at 227,000 souls.

23. Of these islands Corfu is the most Northerly, lying opposite Brindisi and the mouth of the R. Calamas; a few miles below it, off Parga, lies the little island of Paxo. Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cephallonia, and Zante, each other in succession to the Southward, the three first lying opposite the coast of Livadia on the continent of Greece, and the last opposite the southernmost point of the Morea. Cerigo is entirely detached from the rest; it lies more than 120 miles to the S. E. of Zante, off the Southernmost point of Greece, and indeed of the whole continent of Europe.

24. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The established religion of the State is that of the Greek Church; but the Italian settlers are Roman Catholics. After the congress of Vienna in 1815 the constitution of the Ionian Republic was drawn up and ratified by the British Government, which vested the representative power in a senate of 29 representatives, portioned out according to the population of each island. No one can be a member of this representative body, or hold a public office of any consequence, without belonging to the class of gentry; this advantage is understood to be possessed by whoever can afford to live on his income, without commercial dealings are respectable, or who is looked up to by his countrymen for his attainments in education or aptitude for political business.

25. The Ionian Islands, after having repeatedly changed masters since the middle ages, fell at last into the possession of the Venetians, and

Republic of the Ionian Islands.

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to the charge of an Italian governor. The Italian language was only introduced into the public acts and amongst the upper classes, but continues to be spoken by the lower orders especially by the peasantry. The islands remained under the sway of Venice till they were taken by the French, at the close of the last century : but the naval power of the English gradually freed them from the yoke of the latter and in the final arrangements made at the Congress of Vienna it was agreed that the Ionian Republic should be put under the protection of Great Britain.

The names of the seven islands, together with the number of representatives chosen by each, as well as their chief towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table :

Islands.	Representatives.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1828.
- - -	7	Corfu - - -	15,000
- - -	1	Gayo - - -	2,000
Mura - - -	4	Amaxiki or Santa Maura - - -	6,000
Teaki - - -	1	Vathy - - -	3,000
Mia - - -	8	Argostoli - - -	5,000
- - -	7	Zante - - -	19,000
- - -	1	Kapsali, or Cerigo - - -	1,200

Corfu, the Northernmost and first in rank of the Ionian Islands, is the second in size amongst them, containing five square miles less than Cephallonia : it is an important island, and is considered the key of the Adriatic. Its chief town is Corfu, situated on the northern side of the island opposite the coast of Albania, which it is only five miles distant : it is neither large nor well built, but is so strongly fortified, that it is relatively impregnable. It is the seat of government of the whole republic, the place of assembly for the islands, and the residence of the Lord High Commissioner appointed by the British to watch over the interests of the islands. A few years since a university was established here under the auspices of the protecting Power, and the first able-bodied were nominated to the professorial chairs.

Cephallonia is the largest of all the Ionian Islands, and contains more than 100 square miles : its chief town Argostoli, situated on a promontory on the northern side of the island, is a place of very little consequence. Zante is the third in size amongst the Seven Islands ; its chief town, likewise called Zante, stands on the Eastern shores of the island, about ten miles distant from the most Western point of the Peloponnesus, and is chiefly remarkable as the most populous place in the whole state.

CHAPTER XVI.

CONTINENT OF ASIA.

1. ASIA, the largest quarter of the Globe, is bounded on the North by the Frozen Ocean ; on the East by the Pacific ; on the South by the Indian Ocean ; and on the West by the Arabian Gulf, the Isthmus of Suez, the Mediterranean Sea, the Archipelago, the Black Sea, the Sea of Azov, the Rivers Don and Volga, and the Oural Mountains. The Continent of Asia is in general remarkable for the fertility of its soil, which abounds with all the necessities and luxuries of life. As it is the largest Quarter of the Globe, so also is it the most dignified ; in it mankind had their origin, kingdoms and empires took their rise, the arts and sciences were first taught :—but, above all, in it Almighty God revealed His will, His power, and His mercy to man, and in it, in the fulness of time, the Son of God accomplished the recovery of our fallen race.

2. Amongst THE PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS of Asia we may mention Mt. Taurus, called by the natives Ramadan-Oglu, Kurin, &c. which takes its rise on the shores of the Mediterranean, in C. Khelidonia, one of the S. W. promontories of Asia Minor, near which it divides into two branches : one of these runs with an Easterly direction through the whole Southern part of the peninsula, crosses the R. Euphrates on the borders of Syria and Al-Gezira, and assumes in the last province the name of Karadja-Dag. The other branch of the Taurus trends to the N. W. under the names of Sultan-Dag and Kara-Dag, and terminates in the N. W. corner of Asia Minor in the famous Mt. Ida which towers above the ruins of ancient Troy. Towards the head of the R. Tigris the Taurus joins Mt. Niphates and the Carduchian or Jeudi M^s, whence it takes a S. E. course to the great range of Zagros or Aiagha-Dag, on the

confines of Persia : this last subsequently traverses the whole S. part of Persia to the borders of India. In the Eastern part of Asia Minor there is a range of mountains, which, diverging from the Taurus and running for some distance almost in a parallel line with it, was anciently, as it still is, called the Anti-Taurus ; it trends, however, to the North East, past the springs of the Euphrates, and finally connects itself with Mt. Caucasus.

3. The range of mountains which separates Syria from Asia Minor is called Lokham or Alma-Daghy ; it joins the great range of Mt. Taurus near the Pass of Nushar on the R. Euphrates, and terminates on the Mediterranean Sea in C. Khynzyr near Antioch. From this range there are several others running to the Southward nearly parallel with the coast of Syria, and terminating in Mt. Sinai in Arabia Petrea on the shores of the Red Sea. The Northern part of this range is called Anzeyry, and connects itself towards the source of the R. Orontes with the ranges of Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon, once so famous for their cedars : Mt. Carmel is a spur of the Anti-Lebanon near Acre.

4. Mt. Caucasus runs across the isthmus between the Black and Caspian Seas, and is connected towards the South with several ranges of mountains ; amongst these rises the lofty Ararat or Agri Dag in Armenia, upon which the ark is thought to have rested after the Deluge. The ridge which strikes off hence to the Eastward, is known as the Elburz in the neighbourhood of the Caspian Sea, but its continuation, through the N. part of Persia, is called Hindoo Coosh or the Indian Caucasus. It attains its greatest elevation on the N. frontier of India, where it is called Himachal or the Himaleh Mountains, and is remarkable as being the highest known land in the whole world. The Imaus or Gt. Altai M^s. is a range of the Himaleh M^s., which quits them towards the springs of the Ganges and Indus, and stretches in a N. E. direction across Mongolia, till it joins the great ridge of Sayansk or Yablonnoy. This last ridge of mountains separates Mongolia from Siberia ; and after coasting the shores of the North Pacific Ocean, terminates in East Cape, the E. extremity of the whole continent.

5. The elevations of these, and some other great mountains of Asia, above the level of the sea, will be found in the following table :

SYNOPTICAL TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS, &c.
IN ASIA.

	Feet.		Feet.
Adam's Peak, in Ceylon -	7,000	Himaleh M ^s . (Dhawala- gir, highest p ^t .) -	26,462
Almadaghy, in Syria } (highest p ^t .) - }	7,500	Horeb, M ^t ., or Om Sho- mar, in Arabia - }	4,000
Altai M ^s ., G ^t . (Helitzkoi, (highest p ^t .) - }	10,730	Jamutra M ⁿ . (Source of the Ganges) - }	25,500
Ararat or Agri Dag -	10,567	Ida, M ^t ., or Kaz Dag, in }	4,960
Arsous M ⁿ ., in Syria -	5,550	Asia Minor - }	
Avatsha M ⁿ ., in Kamt- chaika - }	9,600	Keeney Balloo M ⁿ ., in }	12,500
Bathurst Town, in Aus- tralia - }	2,014	Borneo - }	
Beerig's I., Peak of -	6,000	Lebanon, M ^t ., in Syria (highest p ^t .) - }	9,525
Carmel, M ^t ., in Syria -	2,200	Mowna Roa M ⁿ ., in }	16,474
Catmandoo City, in In- dia - }	4,784	Owhyhee - }	
Caucasus, M. (highest p ^t .)	9,590	Oeral, M ^t ., in Syria -	6,000
Egmont M ⁿ ., in New } Zealand - }	11,500	Ophir, M ^t ., in Sumatra -	13,842
Elburz M ^s . (Demawund, highest p ^t .) - }	9,500	Otaheite, Peak of -	10,895
Erdjish M ⁿ ., in Asia Minor	9,500	Parmesan M ⁿ ., in Banka	10,000
Fusi M ⁿ . (highest in Japan)	8,000	Pe-tcha M ⁿ ., in China -	15,000
George, L., in Australia -	2,139	Quelpert, Peak of -	6,400
Gete M ⁿ ., in Java -	8,500	Sinai, M ^t ., or St. Catha- rine, in Arabia - }	6,000
Ghauts M ^s ., E., in India } (highest p ^t .) - }	4,450	Tabor, M ^t ., or Tor, in Syria	2,750
Ghauts M ^s ., W., - d ^o (d ^o)	6,500	Taktalu M ⁿ ., in Asia Minor	7,800
Hermon or Heish, in Syria	8,950	Taurus, M ^t . (Ramadan Oglu, highest p ^t .) - }	8,500
		Tsheshish M ⁿ ., in Asia } Minor - - - }	6,500

6. THE ASIATIC STATES. The foundation of the existing divisions of Asia may be readily traced in those which obtained amongst the ancients. Asia Minor and Syria still preserve their names, and form, together with the old Assyrian monarchy and a great part of Armenia, the Asiatic part of the Turkish Empire; containing the several great provinces of Asia Minor, Syria, Armenia, Kourdistan, Algezira, Irak-Arabi, and Cyprus. Amongst its chief cities may be mentioned Smyrna on the *Ægean* Sea; Arzroum, Diarbekir, Aleppo, and Damascus, in the interior of the country; Bagdad, on the Tigris; Tripoli and Acre, on the shores of the Mediterranean; and Jerusalem, between the latter and the Dead Sea. *Below it lies the vast country of Arabia, ruled by its*

own independent chiefs or Imams : its principal cities are Medina and Mecca, near the coasts of the Red Sea; Mocha and Aden, near the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb; Muscat, on the Eastern coast opposite Persia; and Basora, at its N. E. corner, on the banks of the Tigris.

7. To the East of Turkey and Arabia is the Kingdom of Persia, containing the seven provinces of Azerbijan, Ghilan, Mazanderan, Khorasan, Irak, Fars, and Kerman. The chief cities of Persia are Tabriz, Teheran, and Mushed, in the North; Hamadan, Kermanshah, and Ispahan in the West; and Shiraz, Busheer, and Kerman, in the South. To the East of Persia, and extending beyond the Indus into the Northern part of India, is the Kingdom of Cabul, containing the two great provinces Affghanistan and Baloochistan: its principal cities are Cabul, Candahar, Kelat, and Cashmere. India follows next to the Eastward, extending to the mouths of the Ganges, and from the Himaleh Mountains to the Ocean; by far the greater part of it is under the domination, or protection, of the British: its chief cities are Lahore, Delhi, Allahabad, and Catmandoo, in the North; Bombay, Poonah, and Goa, in the West; Seringapatam, Travancore, and Madras, in the South; Kuttack, Calcutta, and Patna, in the East.

8. Still farther East is the Birman Empire, including Birmah and Pegu; the kingdoms of Siam, Cambodia, Laos, Cochin-China, and Tonkin, [or the Empire of Annam as they are sometimes called]; and the peninsula of Malaya or Malacca: all these compose the great Trans-Gangetic peninsula of India. The capital of Birmah is Ummerapoorah; of Pegu, Pegu; of Siam, Siam or Juthia; of Cambodia, Cambodia: of Malacca, Malacca; and, of Cochin-China, Toan-hoa. Above it is the Empire of China, washed on the East by the Pacific Ocean, and on the South by the China Sea; it is called China Proper, in contradistinction to Chinese Tartary or Mongolia, which is subject to it. This last is a vast extent of country, stretching from the shores of the Pacific on the East, to the ridge of mountains between the rivers Indus and Irtysh on the West; and from the great mountain-range of Yablonnoy and Sayansk on the North,

to the Himaleh Mountains and the Chinese Wall on the South. The principal cities of China are Canton in the South, Nankin in the East, and Pekin in the North. Amongst the towns of Mongolia we may notice Holin and Karakum, in the centre of the country; Maimatchin, on the Russian frontier; Cashgar and Yarkand, towards Independent Tartary; and Leh, Gortope, and Lassa, above India.

9. To the West of Mongolia, and extending as far as the Caspian Sea, is Independent Tartary, or Tataria Proper, which touches to the South on the kingdoms of Persia and Cabul, and to the North on the Russian province of Tobolsk: its chief towns are Sumerkund, Chiva, and Turkestan. The whole Northern part of Asia is under the dominion of Russia, and is hence called Russia in Asia, or Asiatic Russia: it is likewise named Siberia, and is bounded on the North by the Frozen Ocean, on the East by the Pacific, on the South by the mountains of Yablonnoy and Sayansk, and on the West by the Ouralian Chain, which (as we have already seen) separates Asia from Europe. The principal towns of Asiatic Russia are Astrakhan, at the entrance of the Volga into the Caspian Sea; Orenburg, on the Oural; Tobolsk, on the R. Irtysh; Tomsk, on the Ob; Irkoutsk, near the Baikal Lake; and Okotsk, on the shores of the Pacific, to an arm of which it has given name.

10. To the S. E. of the continent of Asia is a group of immense islands, which are commonly described as the East India Islands, though some have chosen to call them by the collective name of Australasia. The nearest of them to the continent is Sumatra, which is only separated from Java by a narrow strait: to the E. of Sumatra lie Borneo, Celebes, Gilolo, New Guinea, &c., and to the South of all these is the enormous island of Australia (or New Holland, as it is called), which is nearly as great as all Europe put together; below it lies Van Diemen's Land. Several of these islands belong to the Dutch, but the dominion which they claim over many of them is rather nominal than actual: Australia, Van Diemen's Land, and some others, belonging to the British.

To the North of Borneo, lies a large group of islands, called the Philippines, which are in the possession of the Spaniards: and still farther North, off the coast of Chinese Tartary, is the Empire of Japan, consisting of several islands, as Nipon, Jesso, Kiusiu, Sikoke, and others. The name of Polynesia is applied to those extensive chains of islands, which lie scattered in the Pacific Ocean between the Equator and the Southern Tropic to the Eastward of New Guinea and Australia: it is also considered by some as including the islands to the N. of the Equator, and E. of China and Japan.

II. The superficial extent, and probable population of each country in Asia, will be seen by the following table:

STATISTICAL TABLE OF ASIA.

	Square Miles.	Souls.
Annam, Empire of (including Cambodia, Laos, &c.) - - - - -	235,200	14,500,000
Arabia - - - - -	850,300	11,000,000
Australia - - - - -	2,323,800	3,000,000
Baloochistan - - - - -	115,000	3,000,000
Birmah, Empire of - - - - -	207,700	10,500,000
Borneo - - - - -	217,900	7,000,000
Cabul, Kingdom of - - - - -	313,000	12,000,000
Celebes - - - - -	57,900	4,000,000
China Proper - - - - -	954,300	143,100,000
Cochin China and Tonkin - - - - -	76,100	2,500,000
Japan, Empire of - - - - -	103,800	30,000,000
Java - - - - -	89,800	4,500,000
India and Ceylon - - - - -	997,300	136,500,000
Malacca - - - - -	64,500	2,500,000
New Guinea - - - - -	247,300	3,000,000
New Zealand - - - - -	75,300	500,000
Persia, Kingdom of - - - - -	433,200	15,000,000
Philippine Islands - - - - -	82,100	2,500,000
Polynesia (including all the Asiatic Islands not mentioned in this Table) - - - - -	160,800	10,000,000
Russia in Asia - - - - -	3,583,600	13,000,000
Siam, Kingdom of - - - - -	61,200	4,000,000
Sumatra - - - - -	120,200	10,000,000
Tartary, Chinese - - - - -	2,808,000	14,000,000
Tartary, Independent - - - - -	893,300	5,500,000
Turkey, Empire of - - - - -	357,600	14,000,000
Van Diemen's Land - - - - -	19,300	20,000
Caspian Sea - - - - -	118,200	—
Total in Asia - - - - -	15,526,300	475,620,000

12. THE PRINCIPAL RIVERS of Asia are, in Asia Minor, the Kizil Irmak, which runs into the Black Sea, and the Mendere or Mæander, which runs into the Archipelago: in Syria, the Aaszy or Orontes, flowing into the Mediterranean opposite Cyprus; and the Jordan or Sherya, which empties itself into the Dead Sea. There is no river of any consequence in Arabia; the longest is called the Aftan, and finds its way into the Persian Gulf. In Asiatic Russia besides the Volga, which we have already mentioned as partly in Europe, there are the Irtish, the Obe, the Enisei, the Tounghouska, and the Lena, which all flow Northward into the Frozen Ocean from the great chain of mountains bounding the Southern frontiers of Siberia. The two great rivers of Armenia, the Kur, and the Araxes or Aras, both enter the Caspian Sea.

13. In the Eastern part of Asiatic Turkey we find the Euphrates or Frat, and the Tigris or Teer, which both flow into the Persian Gulf by one mouth. The Sufeed or Kizil Ozen and the Attruck of Persia are small rivers; they run into the S. part of the Caspian Sea, the former on the West, and the latter on the East side. The two great rivers of Persia, the Murghab and the Herimund, terminate in inland seas, and never reach the ocean. Above these are the Oxus or Jihon and the Sir or Sihon, which both enter the Aral Sea, though it is supposed by many, that the former once ran into the Caspian: the Oural or Jaik is an unimportant river, though of some magnitude, on the frontiers of Tartary and Asiatic Russia, which flows down from the Oural M^s. into the Caspian Sea.

14. In the N. W. part of India, is the famous R. Indus which rises in the Himaleh M^s. and, having broken through them and the Indian Caucasus, enters the sea by several mouths. Below it may be mentioned the Bunwas, Nerbuddah, and Tapti, which traverse the Western side of India, and discharge their waters into the Sea of Oman or Arabian Sea: on the Eastern side of the Peninsula are the Cauvery, Kistna, Godavery, and Mahanuddy, which all flow into the Bay of Bengal. *The Ganges rises in the Himaleh M^s. (as does also its*

t tributary, the Jumna), and flows right through the
thern part of India into the Bay of Bengal. Far-
Eastward are the Burrampooter or Tsanpoo, the
river of Tibet, which likewise runs into the Bay of
gal; the Irrawaddy, which flows through the Birman
are into the G. of Martaban; and the Maygue,
it runs through Siam into the Gulf of Siam. The
India or Japanese R. runs through Cambodia into
China Sea.

5. The Whang-Hai, Hoang-Ho, or Yellow R., one
the largest rivers of Asia, rises in Tibet and flows
high the Northern part of China into the Yellow Sea.
Yang-tse-Kiang, which rises in Tibet close to the
ce of the Hoang-Ho, is the longest river in the East-
Hemisphere, and enters the Yellow Sea a little
w Nankin. In the Eastern part of Mongolia, is the
or or Sagalin, which rises in the Yablonnoy Moun-
tains, and runs with an Easterly course into the Gulf of
ary opposite the I. of Sagalin.

The following table will convey some idea of the actual, and com-
parative lengths of these rivers:

OPTICAL TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL RIVERS OF ASIA.

	Miles.		Miles.
Orontes - - -	225	Kizil Irmack - - -	570
- - - - -	350	Kolima - - - - -	700
- - - - -	2,243	Kuban - - - - -	380
Araxes - - - -	600	Kur - - - - -	550
Indus - - - - -	240	Lena - - - - -	2,069
- - - - -	265	Mahanuddy - - -	725
Burrampooter -	2,000	Maygue - - - - -	905
India or Japanese R.	2,300	Menders or Mæander -	180
Amur - - - - -	468	Murghab - - - - -	385
- - - - -	3,115	Nerbuddah - - - -	660
Volga - - - - -	1,530	Obe - - - - -	2,179
- - - - -	1,650	Oural - - - - -	964
Ob - - - - -	723	Oxus or Jihon - - -	1,300
- - - - -	700	Sihon or Sir - - - -	1,000
Whang-Ho or Whang-Hai	2,900	Sufeed or Kizil Ozen -	350
- - - - -	1,700	Tapty - - - - -	410
- - - - -	111	Terek - - - - -	330
Irrawaddy - - -	2,030	Tigris - - - - -	1,000
- - - - -	2,110	Toungouska - - - -	1,250
- - - - -	750	Volga - - - - -	2,100
Yang-tse-Kiang -	686	Yang-tse-Kiang - - -	3,237

17. PRINCIPAL GULFS AND SEAS in Asia. The Black Sea has been already mentioned as washing the shores of Turkey in Europe and Russia in Europe as well as the Asiatic dominions of the same Powers. To the Eastward of it is the great inland sea of the Caspian, bounded on the W. and N. by Asiatic Russia, on the E. by Independent Tartary, and on the S. by Persia: it receives the waters of many considerable rivers, the greatest amongst which is the Volga. The water of the Caspian is as salt as that of the ocean, and even more bitter, excepting at the mouths of some of the great rivers, where it keeps fresh for a long distance from the shore. To the Eastward of the Caspian is the Aral Sea, a much smaller collection of water; which is supposed to have once communicated with it: two great rivers there find an outlet, viz. the Sihon and Amoo.

18. The Arabian Gulf or Red Sea is a long narrow sea which separates the coasts of Egypt, Nubia, and Abyssinia (all in Africa) on the West, from those of Arabia on the East: at its Northern extremity it is divided from the Mediterranean Sea by the narrow Isthmus of Suez, and communicates on the South with the Sea of Bab-el-Mandeb, which is an arm of the Indian Ocean lying between Arabia on the North and the Continent of Africa on the South. The Sea of Oman, or the Arabian Sea as it is also called, stretches from the shores of Arabia on the West to those of Hindoostan on the East; on the North it is bounded by the coast of Persia, between which last country and Arabia it runs up a considerable distance into the land, forming a large gulf named the Gulf of Persia. The Gulfs of Cutch and Cambay are on the North Western coast of India; and the Gulf of Manaar lies between the Southern extremity of the same peninsula and the island of Ceylon. The Bay of Bengal washes the shores of India on the W. and N., and those of the Birman Empire on the E., being connected on the S. with the Indian Ocean.

19. The China Sea lies between China on the North; Tonkin, Cochinchina, Cambodia, and Malacca on the West; Borneo on the South; and the Philippine Islands on the East. There are two great Gulfs in its

ern part, viz. the Gulf of Siam between Siam, sea, and Cambodia ; and the Gulf of Tonkin between Tonkin, China, and the Island of Hainan : its ern part, between the islands of Borneo and Java, ed the Java Sea. The Whang-Hai or Yellow Sea between the North Eastern coast of China Proper the Western coast of Corea in Mongolia. The Sea an washes the Western shores of the Japanese ls and the Eastern coast of Mongolia, between : limits it is, as it were, shut in. The Sea of lk is bounded on the N. and W. by the province outsk in Siberia, on the E. by the long peninsula mtchatka, and is separated on the S. from the c Ocean by the chain of the Kurile Isles.

PRINCIPAL STRAITS in Asia. The Strait of le separating the Crimea from Asiatic Russia, er with the Channels of Constantinople and the nelles by which Asia Minor is divided from Euro-Turkey, have been already mentioned in the ption of the Continent of Europe. The Strait of l-Mandeb (or the Gates of Death, as the name es) is situated at the Southern extremity of the sea, between C. Bab-el-Mandeb, the South Western of Arabia, and Ras Bir in Abyssinia. The Strait umbarack is at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, en C. Bumbarack in Persia, and C. Musseldom in a. Palk's Strait separates the I. of Ceylon from outhern extremity of India.

The Strait of Malacca lies between Malacca on ast and the Island of Sumatra on the West, being cted on the S. with the China Sea by several straits, the most noted of which is the Strait of pore between the little island of Sincapore and the ern extremity of Malacca. There are many narrow s and passages amongst the East India Isles, sepa- ; them from each other, and leading into the China s well as into the Indian and Pacific Oceans. The of Banka lies between the islands of Sumatra and a, the St. of Gaspar between Banka and Billiton I., he Caremata Passage between Billiton and Borneo, ree leading from the China Sea into the Java Sea.

The St. of Sunda lies between Sumatra and Java, connecting the Java Sea with the Indian Ocean. The Straits of Bally, Lombok, Floris, and Toner, lead between the several islands so called into the Indian Ocean. Torres Strait separates Australia from New Guinea, and Bass's Strait separates Australia from Van Diemen's Land. The Gilolo Passage lies between New Guinea and the I. of Gilolo; the Molacca Passage between Gilolo and the I. of Celebes; and the St. of Macassar between Celebes and Borneo.

22. The Strait of Corea separates Corea from the Japanese Islands, and connects the Sea of Japan with the Yellow Sea and the Pacific Ocean. The Strait of Matsmai lies between Matsmai (or Jesso as it is also called) and Nipon, two of the Japanese islands; and the St. of La Perouse between Matsmai and the I. of Sagalin off the N. E. extremity of Mongolia. Bhering's Strait lies between East Cape, the Easternmost point of Asiatic Russia, and C. Prince of Wales, the Westernmost point of America; it separates the two continents of Asia and America, and connects the Frozen Ocean with the Pacific.

23. PRINCIPAL CAPES OF ASIA. The Westernmost point of Asia Minor, and also of the whole continent of Asia is C. Baba, near the entrance of the Dardanelles, and one of the most Southern promontories of the same peninsula is C. Amamour opposite the I. of Cyprus. C. Bab-el-Mandeb is the South Western termination of Arabia, and Ras-el-Had its Eastern extremity. The Southernmost point of India is called C. Comorin, but Romania Pt, at the termination of the long peninsula of Malacca, is the Southernmost point of the whole continent. The Southern termination of Kamtschatka is called C. Lopatka. East Cape, which forms the Western side of Bhering's Strait, is the Easternmost land of all Asia; and C. Severo Vostotchnoi, in the Frozen Sea, is its Northernmost point, being much nearer the Arctic Pole than any point in the continent of Europe.

THE STRAITS AND PASSAGES OF THE EASTERN OCEAN. 8

CHAPTER XVII.

OTTOMAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.

1. THE Ottoman Empire in Asia, or Turkey in Asia as it is likewise called, is bounded on the N. by the Black Sea and Asiatic Russia, on the E. by the Kingdom of Persia, on the S. by Arabia and the Mediterranean Sea, and on the W. by the latter sea and the Archipelago. It contains 357,600 square miles, and its population in 1828 was estimated at 14,000,000 souls: but a large portion of this territory, towards the East, scarcely acknowledges the supremacy of the Porte; and the population of a country where registers are not kept, and where no census is taken, must necessarily be subject to a great degree of uncertainty.

2. Though Turkey has been regarded as a European State ever since the taking of Constantinople, yet still the centre of its power must be considered as placed in Asia Minor and Syria, where the greater part of the population being composed of Turks and zealous Mahometans, will oppose to the last the establishment of a Christian sway. Amidst the falling fortunes of the Empire, its dominions in Asia have been greatly circumscribed, though not in an equal degree with its European possessions. The mountains of Armenia and Kourdistan, and the deep beds of the Euphrates and Tigris, have at different periods formed the line of demarcation between the Ottoman Porte and the Kingdom of Persia, varying according to the successes of each power; and the tract of country included betwixt these limits has always been the scene of the great contests between them, till both sinking under the ascendancy of Russia, they have nearly forgotten their long-cherished mutual animosities, and possess scarcely any authority over those regions which they once so hotly disputed with one another. Bagdad and Basora scarcely own the sovereignty of the Porte, and the mountain-districts of Kourdistan and Armenia are occupied by a number of petty, but daring and independent, chieftains. At one time Western Arabia might have been almost considered a Turkish province, as all its most important towns were under the sway of that power, and actually occupied by its garrisons: amongst these were all the great ports on the Red Sea, as far Southward as Mocha, together with the cities of Mecca and Medina. But the growth of the Wahabite power, and the general decay of the Turkish Empire, have so completely put an end to her dominion in Arabia, that she cannot now even send an armed caravan to Mecca.

3. Turkey in Asia is divided into seven principal parts, viz. *Asia Minor* or *Anadolia*, *Syria* or *Sham*, the

Island of Cyprus, Armenia, Kourdistan, Al-Gezira, and Irak Arabi. These again are subdivided into provinces.

4. **PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS.** Asia Minor is a mountainous country, and is intersected on all sides by lofty ranges, some of which only lose their snow during the summer months: their general direction is East and West. The most considerable of these is Mt. Taurus called by the natives Ramadan-Oglu, Kurin, &c., which runs diagonally across the peninsula and divides the rivers falling into the Archipelago and Mediterranean from those which flow into the Black Sea. It takes its rise on the Mediterranean Sea in C. Kbelidonia, one of the S. W. promontories of Asia Minor, some distance above which it divides into two branches: the main Eastern of these runs through the whole Southern part of the peninsula and crosses the R. Euphrates on the borders of Syria and Al-Gezira at the Pass of Nusse. The other branch of the Taurus trends to the N. W. under the names Sultan-Dag and Kara-Dag, and terminates in the N. W. corner of Asia Minor in the famous Mt. Ida which towers above the ruins of ancient Troy. The range of the Anti-Taurus is in the E. part of Asia Minor, and separates some of the rivers which fall into the Black Sea from the tributaries of the Euphrates; it quits the main range of the Taurus near the R. Syhoun and the town of Tersooos, whence it trends with a N. E. course past the springs of the Euphrates, and finally connects itself with Mt. Caucasus: near the head of the Euphrates it is called Tchisheghi-Dag, but one of its highest peaks is Mt. Erdjish near Kasaria.

5. Mt. Caucasus is an extensive range blocking up, as it were, the isthmus between the Black and Caspian Seas; it extends from the St. of Enikale to the mouths of the Kur, and is so lofty as to be covered in many parts with perpetual snow. It is connected towards the S. with several ranges of mountains: amongst these, on the frontiers of Russia, Turkey, and Persia, rises the lofty Agri-Dag or Mt. Ararat, upon which the ark is thought to have rested after the Deluge. The ridge running hence to the Southward and forming the boundary

between Turkey and Persia is called Aiagha-Dag, and subsequently traverses the whole Southern part of Persia: it is joined on the W. by the range of the Carduchian or Jeudi M^t., which towards the head of the R. Tigris are called M^t. Niphates and Karadja-Dag, and join the Taurus on the banks of the Euphrates at the Pass of Nushar.

6. The Western half of Syria is intersected with several ranges of hills, running for the most part parallel with the coast, and forming, as it were, a connecting chain between M^t. Taurus in Asia Minor, and M^t. Sinai in Arabia Petrea on the borders of the Red Sea. M^t. Lokham or Alma-Daghy, which forms the N. boundary of Syria, is a spur of the Taurus quitting the main ridge near the Pass of Nushar on the R. Euphrates, and terminating at C. Khynzyr on the Mediterranean Sea to the W. of Antioch. The continuation of this range to the S. is called Anzeyry, and connects itself towards the source of the R. Orontes with the ranges of Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon, so famous for the large and beautiful cedars which they once produced, and the summits of which are covered with snow during the greater part of the year. M^t. Hermon or Heish is a spur of the Anti-Lebanon, near the source of the R. Jordan; and M^t. Carmel is another branch of it terminating on the Bay of Acre in C. Carmel.

7. PRINCIPAL RIVERS. The chief rivers of Asia Minor which run into the Black Sea are the Sakaria, the Bartin, the Kizil-Irmak, and the Jekil-Irmak. Of these the Sakaria, which is the most Western, rises in the very heart of the peninsula, and is 245 miles long. The Kizil-Irmak or Red River, anciently called Halys, is the longest river in Asia Minor; it rises on the N. side of the Anti-Taurus, and flows with a circuitous course of 570 miles into the Euxine near Bafra. The Jekil-Irmak or Green River rises near it to the Eastward, and flows into the Black Sea at the G. of Samsoun. In the Western part of Asia Minor are the Grimakli, Sarabat, and Mendere, which all rise in the Western arm of M^t. Taurus. The Grimakli flows into the G. of Sandarli, and was anciently called Caicus; the Sarabat, formerly called *Hermus*, runs into the G. of Smyrna,

and is 190 miles long; the Mendere or Mæander is 180 miles long, and was so celebrated for the numerous windings of its course that from it all sinuosities have received the name of Mæanders. The only two great rivers in the S. part of Asia Minor are the Syhoon and the Jyhoon, which are close to each other. The Syhoon, which is 170 miles long, rises between the Taurus and Anti-Taurus, and having broken through the former range at the Cilician Pass, enters the Mediterranean Sea below Adana: the Jyhoon, which is a smaller river, rises near it and runs into the B. of Iskenderoon.

8. There are only three great rivers in Syria, viz. the Aaszy or Orontes in the North, the Liettani or Leontes in the centre, and the Sherya or Jordan in the South. Of these the Aaszy is much the longest; it rises in the angle formed by the Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon, and flows with a N. W. course of 225 miles past Antioch into the Mediterranean Sea opposite the I. of Cyprus. The Liettani rises in Mt. Lebanon not far from the preceding, and flows S. W. into the Mediterranean between Tyre and Sidon. The Jordan, called also Orden and Sherya, rises in a little lake on Mt. Hermon or Heish, whence it flows to the S. through L. Hoolya and the L. of Tabaria into the Bahr-Lout, Al-Motana, or Dead Sea: it never reaches the ocean; its length to its junction with the Dead Sea is 111 miles.

9. The R. Euphrates, or Frat as it is also called, is one of the most important rivers of Asia. It has two distinct sources, one in the Anti-Taurus near Arzroum, and the other in Mt. Ararat; after the junction of these branches the Euphrates forms the line of demarcation between the Turkish provinces of Armenia and Al-Gezira on the E., and those of Asia Minor and Syria on the West, as also between Al-Gezira and Persia on the E. and Arabia on the South. On the frontiers of Persia and Arabia it joins the R. Tigris, and under the name of Shut-ul-Arab the united stream flows past Bassora into the Persian Gulf. The general direction of the Euphrates is S. E.; and its total length to the sea 1,530 miles or about the same as the Ganges: its chief tributaries are the *Khabour* and *Sinjar* in Al-Gezira, and the *Koremoz*

in Asia Minor. The R. Tigris, or Teer as it is likewise named; rises from several sources in Mt. Niphates and the Karadja-Dag in the neighbourhood of Diarbekir; after passing Mosul and Bagdad, it receives the waters of the Frat and enters the Persian Gulf: its course is nearly parallel with that of the Frat; but it is a much smaller river than the latter, being only 1,000 miles long to its mouth in the gulf. Its chief tributaries are the Zab and Dealla in Kourdistan, and the Kerah and Karoon in Persia.

10. **PRINCIPAL CAPES.** The two chief promontories on the Euxine coast of Asia Minor are, C. Indjeh its Northern extremity, and C. Kerempe which is 151 miles distant from the Southernmost point of the Crimea in European Russia, on the opposite side of the Black Sea. On the Western coast of Asia Minor are, C. Jenishehr at the Southern entrance of the Dardanelles; C. Baba, the Westernmost point of the peninsula, formed by the jutting out of Mt. Ida into the Sea; C. Karaburun at the entrance of the G. of Smyrna; C. S. Mary, a prominent foot of Mt. Mycale opposite the I. of Samos; and C. Krio to the N. W. of the I. of Rhodes. On its Southern coast are, C. Kbelidonia, where Mt. Taurus takes its rise; and C. Anamour, the Southern extremity of Asia Minor.

11. The chief capes of Syria are, C. Khynzyr, the termination of Mt. Libanus to the W. of Antioch; C. Ziaret opposite the I. of Cyprus; Ras el Shakaa or C. Madonna near Tripoli, and improperly said to be the termination of Mt. Lebanon; the Point of Beirout near the town of this name; and C. Carmel, the termination of Mt. Carmel opposite Acre.

12. **PRINCIPAL SEAS, &c.** The Northern coast of Asia Minor is washed by the Black Sea and the Sea of Marmara, which are separated from each other by the narrow Channel of Constantinople; the Sea of Marmara communicating with the Archipelago by means of the Strait of the Dardanelles. Its chief gulfs in the Black Sea are, the G. of Samsoun, and the G. of Sinopi; in the Sea of Marmara are, the G. of Izmid and the G. of Mondania. The Western coast of Asia Minor is washed by the Archipelago, and contains the several gulfs of Adramyti, Sandarli, Smyrna, Scalanova, Asyn-Kaleh, Boodroom, and Symi. The Mediterranean Sea bounds its Southern coast, and forms the Gulfs of Marmara, Macry, Adalia, and Iskenderoon. The shores of Syria are likewise washed by the Mediterranean Sea, and contain but one bay of any consequence, viz. the B. of Acre.

13. There are several inland seas in Asiatic Turkey. In Asia Minor we may notice those of Iznik, Ulubad, Minias, and Biga, near the Sea of Mar-mara; and L. Kadun-Tuzla, in the centre of the peninsula, which supplies the whole of the surrounding country with salt. In Syria are, the Lakes of Hoolya & Tabaria which are traversed by the R. Jordan, and the Dead Sea into which this river finally discharges its waters; the beautiful L. of the Meadows near Damascus; L. Homs or Kadez at the source of the R. Orontes; and L. Sabkh near Aleppo. In Armenia is L. Van, and near it it, towards the springs of the Tigris is the L. of Erzen.

14. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The character and policy of these are the same as those already mentioned in the description of European Turkey*; there is, however, even more bigotry amongst the people of Asiatic Turkey, and its members are so incongruous that they bear no resemblance to each other, excepting in the common circumstance of having been all united by conquest to this barbarous empire.

15. In European Turkey the effects of the Mahometan system are somewhat tempered by its proximity to civilized states, by its conscious weakness, and by the great excess of the Christian over the Turkish population. But the Asiatic Turks, though convinced of the danger which threatens the whole empire, from the change that has taken place in the relative power of the Mussulman and the Christian world, since their ancestors conquered the favoured regions of which their successors have so long been permitted to remain in the undisturbed abuse, derive, nevertheless, a strong feeling of confidence and security from their being farther removed from the Christian nations whom they dread; and, sensible that European Turkey must be the first to fall before the conqueror, they exercise no restraint in the indulgence of their hatred to the Christian name, beyond what arises from the dictates of their religion, or from the native hospitality of the people of the East.

16. The names of the 21 Pachalics into which the seven great provinces of Asiatic Turkey are subdivided, together with their chief towns, and the population of the latter as estimated in 1828, may be seen in the following table:

Provinces.	Pachalics.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1828.
ASIA MINOR OR ANADOLIA :	Anadolia - -	Kutaya - -	55,000
	Roum or Sivas - -	Sivas - -	15,000
	Trebisonde - -	Trebisonde - -	25,000
	Karamania, Kharidj, or Konia - -	Konia - -	30,000
	Itshili or Adana - -	Adana - -	8,000
	Marash - -	Marash or Banicia	7,000

* See p. 180, sect. 17.

Provinces.	Pachalics.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population in 1828.
SYRIA OR SHAM :	Aleppo or Haleb -	Aleppo or Haleb -	150,000
	Tripoli -	Tripoli -	16,000
	Damascus -	Damascus or Sham	180,000
	Acre and Gaza -	Acre -	15,000
ISLAND OF CYPRUS :	Cyprus -	Nicosia -	12,000
ARMENIA :	Diarbekir -	Diarbekir -	40,000
	Arzroum or Erzeroum -	Arzroum -	70,000
	Akalzike or Tcheldir -	Ardagar -	5,000
	Kars -	Kars -	18,000
	Van -	Van -	45,000
KOURDISTAN :	Mosul -	Mosul -	40,000
	Shahrasour -	Shahrasour -	10,000
AL GEZIRA :	Racca or Orfa -	Orfa -	20,000
IRAQ ARABI :	Bagdad -	Bagdad -	80,000
	Bassora -	Bassora -	50,000

17. ASIA MINOR, or *Anadolia* as it is also called, is bounded on the N. by the Black Sea and the Sea of Marmara ; on the W. by the Archipelago ; on the S. by the Mediterranean Sea and Mt. Lokham ; and on the E. by the R. Euphrates and part of the range of the Anti-Taurus. It is divided into 6 Pachalics, viz. *Anadolia*, *Roum*, *Trebisonde*, *Karamania*, *Itshili*, and *Marash*.

18. Its name of *Anatolia* (improperly written *Natolia*), or *Anadoli* as the Turks call it, is derived from the Greek word *Ἀνατολή* signifying *the East*, and is not unfrequently applied to the whole of the Eastern countries under the sway of the Crescent, in contradistinction to its European possessions : it is, however, more properly confined to *Asia Minor*, and in its strict sense, even to the Western part of this peninsula alone. Hence, in its most extended use the term *Anatolia* has great affinity with that of *The Levant*, which we Europeans apply in common language to the Eastern coasts of the Mediterranean, and especially *Asiatic Turkey*, from *Alexandria* in *Egypt* to the Black Sea, including the islands of *Cyprus*, *Rhodes*, and the Archipelago : the term is in allusion to the quarter where the sun rises, and, though once frequently made use of, seems now gradually becoming obsolete. The name of *Roum*, i. e. the kingdom of the Romans, was given to *Anatolia* by *Soliman*, sultan of the Turks, when he invaded and became master of it in the eleventh century : it is now confined to the North Eastern part of *Asia Minor* bordering upon *Armenia*, between which, *Anatolia Proper*, and *Karamania*, it may be described as situated. The name of *Karamania*, by which we Europeans commonly distinguish the South Eastern part of *Asia Minor*, is not used by the present inhabitants, nor is it recog-

nized at the seat government. It was derived from a chieftain, called Karaman, who long since founded a kingdom which comprised the ancient provinces of Cilicia, Pamphylia, and Lydia, together with portions of Phrygia and Caria; but after various struggles with the growing power of the Turks, during the course of two centuries, it was finally subverted by Bajazet the 2d, and the inland town of Karaman affords, at this day, the only remaining vestige of the name.

19. The chief town of the Pachalic of Anadolia is Kutaya, situated nearly in its centre, on the little R. Pursak, which is a tributary of the Sakaria: it derives all its importance from being the residence of the Beglerbeg of the province, for it is much inferior in all the requisites of a great city both to Smyrna and Angora. The last mentioned city lies to the westward of Kutaya, not far from one of the sources of the Sakaria, and on the borders of Karamania: it was the ancient Ancyra, the capital of Galatia, and still preserves many of the beautiful monuments, with which the city was adorned. Angora is rendered very famous by the manufacture of goats' hair which are carried on in it, and which are said to rival those of Cashmere; it stands in a lofty and imposing position, and its inhabitants are supposed to amount to about 80,000 souls, are reckoned amongst the most polished of the whole peninsula. Angora was taken by Tamerlane in 1401, after the defeat and capture of Bajazet in a battle near it. To the S. of Kutaya, and not far from the North Western extremity of Karamania, stands Ak-Karahissar, literally the *Black Castle of Opium*; it was the patrimony of the Ottoman, the founder of the Turkish empire, but it is now better known from the vast quantity of opium here grown and prepared, and principally sold to the merchants of Smyrna.

20. Smyrna, likewise called Ismir, is by far the largest, most important, and most populous city in the whole peninsula: it stands on the shores of the Archipelago, at the head of a gulf to which it has given name. Owing to its central situation and the excellence of its harbour, it is resorted to by a prodigious concourse of merchants both by sea and land, who here purchase the valuable productions of Asia Minor, or exchange them for the commodities of other and distant countries. These circumstances have rendered it a very flourishing city, and caused it to be considered the great emporium of the Levant. Smyrna is nearly four miles in circuit, and extends for a mile along the sea, in approaching from which it presents a very beautiful appearance; but, like all Turkish cities, the interior does not correspond with the splendour of its approach: the streets are narrow, dirty, and ill-paved, and the *bazaars*, though well stocked with merchandize, are far from being even handsome in their structure. Smyrna has suffered often and materially from earthquakes, which from time to time cause some injury and much alarm to the inhabitants: but its

city is the plague, which in 1814 produced
ages that its victims were estimated at upwards

The total number of inhabitants in Smyrna
ed at 120,000: of these, 70,000 are Turks,
Greeks, 13,000 Jews, 8,000 Armenians, and
4,000 Franks.

ru. corrupted from the ancient Sebaste, on the site of which it
is situated near the source of the Kizil Irmak, or Red R., and is
al of the Pachalic of Roum; it is dirty and ill-built, and the castle,
it was formerly defended; now lies in ruins. In the year 1394 it
as by Bajazet, and soon afterwards by Tamerlane, who destroyed
it and made a terrible slaughter of the inhabitants. To the N. W.
it, not far from the springs of the Jekil Irmak, or Green R., and near
the of the province of Roum is Tokat: it is a far more important
than Sivas, its population amounting to 50,000 souls. It is almost
bordered with mountains, which afford quarries of good marble, and
the town with innumerable springs of water; the streets are well-
but frequently built on exceedingly uneven ground. Tokat possesses
active inland trade with all parts of Asia Minor, and is the centre of
traffic that is carried on between the peninsula, Armenia, and the
es to the Eastward of the Euxine.

Trebisonde, the capital of the Pachalic of the same name, occupies
of the ancient Trapezus, on the shores of the Black Sea. It is of
ng shape, rising gently from the sea, and is defended on the East and
by two deep ravines connected by a ditch cut in the rock behind the
and along the skirts of which run the ancient ramparts, which are
stone, and in general very lofty. Trebisonde derives all its interest
ving been the termination by land of the famous Retreat of the Ten
nd Greeks. Its population is now composed of a heterogeneous
of Turks, Greeks, Jews, Armenians, Georgians, Circassians, Min-
, and Tartars.

Karamania is groaning even under a worse kind of despotism than
of the unfortunate country of which it forms a part. Sheltered
l'effectual control of the Porte by the fastnesses of Mount Taurus,
valent and half independent pachas amongst whom it is parcelled
engaged in constant petty hostilities with each other, so that their
se frontiers change with the issue of every skirmish. Hence it is a
pd scene of anarchy, rapine, and contention; its former cities are
l, its fertile vallies untilled, its rivers and harbours idle, and the
unts of its extensive line of coast, stretching along a sea abounding
do not possess a single boat.

Konia, the capital of Karamania, stands on the site of the ancient
s, and has obtained its name from it: it has derived considerable in-
om its having been the metropolis and the residence of the Seljukian
of the Turkish sultans, who reigned over this part of Asia Minor
a close of the 11th. till the commencement of the 14th. century.
Bajazet, Konia was permanently annexed to the dominions of the
Sultan; since which period, having lost its character as a metropoli-
s, it has very much declined, and now exhibits all the marks of decay.
if interest is derived from the ancient Mussulman structures, parti-
the mosques, of which there are twelve large, and upwards of a
small: some of these are very magnificent, especially in the door

rations of their interiors. The circuit of Konia is nearly three miles, but its suburbs are large, and not much less populous than the town itself. The walls are strong and lofty, and are flanked with square towers; they are of the time of the Seljukian kings, who seem to have taken considerable pains to exhibit the Greek inscriptions, and the remains of architecture and sculpture belonging to the ancient Iconium, which they made use of in building their walls. The most remarkable building in Konia is the tomb of a saint, highly revered throughout all Turkey from his having been the founder of a set of *Dervishes*, or begging monks: his sepulchre is the object of a Musulman pilgrimage, and causes the whole town to be considered as possessing a peculiar sanctity.

25. The pachalic of Itshili nearly corresponds with the ancient Cilicia, and appears still to retain the old appellation in a very corrupted form. Its capital is Adana, which occupies the site of the ancient city of Adana; it stands on the R. Syhoun at no great distance from its mouth, and possesses very little importance beyond what attaches to it as the residence of the pacha. A few miles to the W. of it on the little R. Cydnus, now known as the Tersoos, stands Tersoos, the most populous and important city in the province: it was anciently called Tarsus, and is well-known as the birth-place of the Apostle Paul. Its population is estimated at 30,000 souls. Marasch, the capital of the pachalic of the same name, is situated at the Eastern extremity of Cilicia, close upon the limits of Syria; it stands at the foot of Mt. Amanus or Almadaghy, upon a small tributary of the R. Jyhoon, but is a mean place, possessing very little interest.

26. SYRIA, or Sham as it is called by the natives, is bounded on the W. by the Mediterranean Sea; on the N. by Mt. Lokham and part of the Taurus; on the E. by the R. Euphrates and the Desert of Palmyra; and on the S. by the R. Szafye, the Dead Sea, and the Torrent of Egypt. Its superficial extent amounts to about 61,300 square miles, and it is divided into the four pachalics of Aleppo, Tripoli, Damascus, and Acre. It presents the same scenes of oppression and tyranny, which characterize the other countries under the sway of the Ottoman chief, and the melancholy appearance of its present desolation and misery is only increased by the recollection of its former greatness.

27. Judæa, which before the age of the prophets, had, from the uniformity and peculiarity of its government, remained unvaried in a manner and to a degree unusual among nations, has since undergone many convulsions, and has for many generations been unceasingly subjected to reiterated spoliation. What Prophets foretold more than twenty centuries since, is now seen by every traveller who wanders through this once highly favoured country, and each prediction relating to its complete desolation is found to have been minutely fulfilled, so far as the facts have been made known. Its cities are now only heaps of mouldering ruins; its plains, formerly thronged with thousands of inhabitants, have become cheerless solitudes; its luxurious mountains, and fertile vallies once flowing with milk and honey, are now covered with thorns, and altogether untilled: the spoiler and oppressor are

upon the land, and none are found to labour, for amidst such we can be secure. The ancient possessors of the country, scattered over the four quarters of the world, have made room for inhabitants in character and few in number; the mirth of the land is gone, the vine is prohibited in a land of vines, and the very highways are und trodden. The Ammonites are extinct, and their cities a desolation. Moab is destroyed, and none of its towns have escaped from desolation. Idumæa is the scene of an unparalleled and irreparable destruction, a desolate wilderness over which the line of confusion is laid out; its cities are utterly forsaken, and empty sepulchres their monuments. The cities of the Philistines are tenanted by shepherds, the valleys mere folds for wandering flocks; Gaza has lost its king, is without an inhabitant, and Ekron has been rooted up. Jerusalem has been long in subjection to the Gentiles; Samaria is cast down in the valley, and its foundations are discovered; Lebanon is ashamed, cedars, few and diminutive, have lost all their praise and renown.

Aleppo or Haleb, the capital of the pachalic of the same name, extending from the Mediterranean to the Euphrates, is situated on the little R. Coich, which empties itself in a lake about 20 miles to the S. of the city. Aleppo is considered the key of Syria towards the North, and though a city of great commercial importance, it is not esteemed a place of much strength. It was entirely destroyed in the year 1822 by two terrible earthquakes, when at least one-fourth of its inhabitants were buried alive: prior to this calamity their number is said to have amounted to 230,000 souls, and of them as escaped the awful visitation have been obliged to seek refuge in the environs, and encamped in the trembling ruins of their once flourishing city.

Aleppo was encompassed with walls of hewn stone, which were part of the Mameluke building; they were only three miles in circuit, the suburbs were so extensive, that the whole circumference of the city amounted at seven miles. The houses were likewise of hewn stone, built on terraced over, so that one could go from house to house on the roofs, there being no partitions erected; and the air of Aleppo is such that the inhabitants are accustomed to lie on these roofs during the summer-season. The mosques and khans were very magnificent; several of the former had large domes, built at a great expense, but so raised above the other buildings that they appeared low and flat. Aleppo was esteemed one of the cleanest and best-built cities throughout the empire of the Ottoman dominions, and its inhabitants were accounted as polished of all the Turks: on whatever side it was approached, the numerous domes and minarets presented an agreeable prospect to the eye, the beautiful and fertile gardens with which it was surrounded gave it a remarkably interesting and picturesque appearance.

About 45 miles to the W. of Aleppo stands

Antakia, the ancient Antioch, on the banks of the R. Orontes or Aaszy, and nearly 20 miles from its mouth in the Mediterranean Sea. This celebrated city, anciently renowned for the luxury of its inhabitants, is now no more than a ruinous town; whose houses, built frequently with mud and straw, and narrow miry streets, exhibit every appearance of poverty and wretchedness. The number of its inhabitants amounts to less than 20,000, of whom about 3,000 are Christians.

31. The ancient wall with which it was surrounded, and which is about five miles in circuit, is still for the most part standing, though in a very decayed and mouldering state; the modern city is confined within a very small portion of this area. Antioch has repeatedly suffered from the shocks of earthquakes, especially by that one which in 1822 reduced Aleppo to ruins: it is now the see of a Greek Patriarch. It was rendered very famous by the gallantry of the Crusaders, who, having made themselves masters of this part of Syria towards the close of the 11th. century, constituted a principality here under the title of Antioch in 1098: this principality lasted till the year 1268, when it was put an end to by the sultan of Babylon, who captured Antioch and led the greater part of its population into captivity. The city was afterwards incorporated with the Turkish empire, but it has been ever since gradually sinking to its present degraded condition.

32. To the N. of Antioch, upon the shores of the Mediterranean, is Iskenderoon or Scanderoon, the ancient Alexandria ad Issum, a name it preserves in that of Alexandretta by which it is likewise known: it stands on the South Eastern side of the Bay of Iskenderoon, and owes all its importance to its comparatively safe anchorage (the only one to be met with on this part of the coast), which renders it the common port of Aleppo. It is now reduced to a mean village of about 800 inhabitants, and is rendered exceedingly insalubrious by the *miasma*, or infected air, arising from the neighbouring marshes.

33. The pachalic of Tripoli occupies the Northern part of maritime Syria, nearly from the mouth of the Orontes to the Cedars of Lebanon. These Cedars are on the common limits of the three pachalics of Tripoli, Damascus, and Acre, no great distance from the source of the Orontes; they are about 20 in number, and are fine specimens of those magnificent trees with which Mt. Lebanon formerly abounded. The superstitious natives pretend that it was this little forest, which furnished Solomon with the materials for building his temple, and honour it accordingly with especial veneration: every year, on the festival of the Transfiguration, the Greeks, Armenians, and Maronites, erect a rude altar at the foot of these venerable cedars, and there perform mass. The town of Tripoli is situated in the Southern part of the province, on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea; it is about three-quarters of a mile long, and has no fortification but an old citadel, which is now altogether useless. There is, properly speaking, no harbour, but a mere roadstead defended against the action of the sea by a line of small islands and shoals, called the Rabbit and Pigeon Islands; the anchorage, however, is neither safe nor convenient. To the N. of Tripoli lie the towns of Tortosa, Banias, and Ladkeyah (or Latakia, as it is also

they are all situated on the coast, but owing to the barbarous the Turks, they are mean and inconsiderable places.

the secluded vallies between Mt. Lebanon and the sea, inaccessible, but unfortunately not to the intrigues, of the Turkish pachas, little bands of people, different in their religion and customs, but their love for independence, the Maronites and Druses. The first, called Kesrouan, or improperly Castravan, extends from el Kebir in the Southern part of Tripoli, to the Nahr el Kelb in the part of Acre. The Maronites are in number about 150,000, in villages and hamlets round the convent of Kanobin, which from the residence of their patriarch, may be considered as their chief divided into various tribes, each cultivates his own little territory; peaceably and frugally in the bosom of their families, and beneath the roof the Christian traveller does not fail to meet with a kind reception. The sound of bells and the pomp of processions full liberty of conscience here enjoyed by the Christians. Two monasteries rigorously adhere to the laws of St. Anthony, and hermits have taken up their abode in the grottoes and caverns of . Though they have renounced the heresies of Maron, the founder of the sect, and profess the doctrines of the Church of Rome, the Maronites maintain the ancient institution of the marriage of their priests: God is fervent and steady, and notwithstanding its superstition, beautiful interest over their little territory, surrounded as it almost darkness of Islamism.

The Druses are about the same in number as the Maronites, and find them in the pachalic of Acre, as far Southward as the Nahr el which river may be said generally to form their Eastern frontier. thought to be the descendants of the ancient Ituræi, mentioned by the authors, whose country, together with the Trachonitis constituted of the tetrarchies mentioned in the New Testament as having been cut out of the kingdom of Herod: this conjecture is considerably strengthened by the report of a modern traveller, according to whom, their more correctly written Durzi or Turzi. The residence of the Emir of the Druses is Deir el Kammar, i. e. *the House of the Moon*: it is in the valley midway between Mt. Lebanon and the Sea, about from Sayda and Beirout, which last is the emporium of their trade. They believe in one Supreme being, who appeared for the last time in the person of Hakem, caliph of Egypt, in the year . This impious pretender was supported in his wishes to pass for the false prophet, who came from Persia into Egypt: both the and his priest perished by violence, but their doctrines survived, the proselytes being persecuted by the sect in power, are said to have fled in the mountains of Lebanon, and here formed an independent

They found it to be their interest to tolerate a difference of opinion in these matters, and they have therefore united in a body to oppose the Crusaders, the sultans of Aleppo, the Mamelukes, and the Mamluks. After the conquest of Syria by the latter, the Druses freed themselves from the mountains to harass them, but since the middle of the 16th century they have been subject to the Porte, and have maintained almost undisturbed independence by the regular payment of an tribute. They are in general fierce, restless, and enterprising, and every even approaches to temerity. Some of them entertain very different opinions with respect to religion, but as a body they are said to be indifferent to it, following the Maronites or Turks, according as they

find it convenient, and many of them, when they are importuned by Christian missionaries, suffering themselves to be baptized.

36. The pachalic of Damascus is by far the largest of the four great divisions of Syria: it extends from the Euphrates to the Jordan, and beyond the Jordan into the centre of Judæa, properly so called, as far as the neighbourhood of Aleppo, to the midst of the Syrian Desert. Its capital Damascus, called Damesk by the inhabitants, and Sham by the Arabs, is situated in the midst of a luxuriant plain, watered by the various branches of the R. Barrada, which loses itself about eight miles below the city, in the Bahr el Margi or *Lake Meadows*. Damascus is about two miles long, and is surrounded with walls defended by towers, which are now fallen into a ruinous state: it is the centre of the commerce of Syria, and the most important and populous city in the whole country.

37. All the pilgrims from the North of Asia to Mecca make Damascus a place of rendezvous; their number amounts annually to nearly 40,000, of whom arrive several months before the departure of the caravan. The city then presents the appearance of an immense fair, every street is filled with camels, horses, mules, and merchandize. The expedition is conducted with great pomp, being not only of a commercial but of a religious nature. The pacha who leads it receives the standard of safety from the governor of the castle, and gives a solemn pledge for the safety of the caravan; he is responsible for the safety of the caravan, and, on its arrival at Damascus, a messenger is immediately despatched to Constantinople to bring some water from the holy well Zemzem at Mecca, and some from the well of Medina, for the Ottoman Emperor. The manufactures of Damascus, especially those of silk and steel, are very considerable, and much esteemed in the Eastern countries. Its sabres were once very highly esteemed in Europe, and were tempered in such a peculiar manner that they were perfectly elastic; they never broke, and iron would yield under their edge. The secret of manufacturing these blades is now nearly lost, owing to the having carried away the artificers into Persia.

38. The other great city in the pachalic of Damascus is Jerusalem, lying about midway between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean: the Turks call it Coudsheriff or Coudsheriff, but it is generally known among the Eastern nations by the name of El Khodda, or *the holy*, with the occasional addition of El Shams, or *the noble*. It was taken by the Persians about the beginning of the seventh century, but shortly afterwards fell into the hands of the Saracens under the Caliph Omar. The Crusaders obtained possession of it A. D. 1099.

founded a kingdom which lasted till 1187, when it was taken by Saladin, king of Egypt. In 1517 Selim, emperor of the Turks, annexed it, together with all Syria, to the Turkish empire, under which it still continues: but its barbarous conquerors view its holy places with peculiar reverence, and the Grand Seignor styles himself the guardian, and not the master of them. Jerusalem is about two miles and a half in circuit, and is chiefly built on Mt. Moriah; the ascents to it on all sides, except towards the North, are steep, and it is almost surrounded by vallies encompassed with mountains, so that it has the appearance of being situated in the middle of an amphitheatre. Its present population is vaguely estimated at about 25,000 souls; of these about 16,000 are supposed to be Christians, Greeks, Latins, Maronites, Armenians, &c., 7,000 Mahometans, and the remainder Jews.

39. Although Jerusalem has been so long in the possession of the Moslems, yet the sacred scenes which it presents have long rendered it the abode of numerous monks. These consisted originally of various nations and professions, each of which had a quarter assigned to it: but the number has of late been reduced to four, the Latins, Greeks, Armenians, and Copts, of which the last are now almost reduced to nothing. Besides appropriate apartments, each fraternity has altars and a sanctuary specially allotted to its own use: the great object of ambition to each has been the possession of the Holy Sepulchre, a privilege often disputed with much fury and animosity, till it was finally assigned to the Latins, who now alone can solemnize in it any public office of religion.

40. The houses of Jerusalem are generally well built of stone, for the most part of two or three stories, with plain simple fronts, without any windows in the lower story: the roofs are either terraced, or rise in domes, and the dull uniformity of the whole is interrupted by the steeples of the churches and mosques. By far the most splendid edifice now in the city is a mosque built in the seventh century by the Saracens under calif Omar, on the site of the temple, and which is said to be superior to any other specimen of modern architecture in the whole Turkish empire. But the building, which has always been the object of visitation and respect with Christian pilgrims, is called the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, built by the empress Helena, and derives its name from being supposed to include all the spots connected with the crucifixion and entombment of our Saviour. It is a very handsome building, 300 feet long, and nearly 200 broad, and embraces various apartments belonging to different denominations of Christians. The tomb, which is in the central part, has the appearance of a superb mausoleum; its surface is covered with rich damask hangings, striped with gold. In the interior is a stone, eight feet long, rather more than two broad, and about two feet from the ground. On this slab the body of our Lord is pretended to have been deposited; and over it are suspended 44 lamps, chiefly of silver, but some of gold, which are kept constantly burning.

There is, however, much at Jerusalem, independent of its relics, its monks, and its monasteries, to repay pilgrims of a different description from those who usually resort thither, for all the fatigue and dangers they must encounter. At the same time, to men interested in tracing within its walls antiquities referred to by documents of Sacred History, no spectacle can be more mortifying than the city in its present state: the mistaken piety of the early Christians, in attempting to preserve, having either confused or annihilated the memorials it endeavoured to perpetuate.

41. The pachalic of Acre, in its confined sense, corresponds with the ancient Phœnice, but the Turkish governor of it likewise controls the pachalic of Gaza, which was formerly a separate government. Its capital Acre, or St. John d'Acre as it is likewise called, stands on the shores of the Mediterranean, on the Eastern side of a Bay to which it has communicated its name; it is surrounded with walls, but is greatly reduced from its former extent, and its harbour, though bad, is valuable from its being one of the best on the coast, and the sole avenue by which the staple food of the country is introduced on this side. Most of the streets are so narrow that only one camel can pass through them at a time; this construction, and the marshes which are in the neighbourhood of the town, have rendered it very unwholesome. Acre was besieged by the Crusaders in 1191, when 300,000 persons are said to have been killed. It was likewise attacked by the French under Bonaparte in 1799, but owing to the Turks under Djeddar being led on by our gallant countryman Sir Sidney Smith, and assisted by a small number of English sailors, the French were repulsed with great loss, and compelled to retreat. To the E. of Acre is Tabaria, the ancient Tiberias, which has given name to the Lake of Tabaria or Sea of Galilee, on the Western banks of which it is situated: it is a small and mean town, and is frequented by certain Jewish pilgrims.

42. To the N. of Acre on the coast of the Mediterranean is Soor, the ancient Tyre, now, as had been predicted of it in Holy Writ, like the top of a rock, and a mere place for fishers to dry their nets on: the whole of its population, scattered amongst the decaying memorials of its former greatness, does not exceed 3,000 souls. Still farther N. on the coast is Sayda, the ancient Sidon, which like her daughter Tyre, has sunk from her high post amongst the nations, and dwindled from one of the greatest and most splendid cities of ancient times, into a mean sea-port town: its ruined buildings are rapidly mouldering away, its harbours are choked up, the immense traffic which it carried on with the whole known world has ceased, and the endless ingenuity displayed by the inhabitants in every species of manufacture, is now confined to the spinning of cotton, and a few other equally simple employments. Its population is estimated at about 6,000 souls. To the N. of Sayda lies Beirout, a town of some little consequence from the traffic there carried on by the Maronites and Druses; it is sometimes erroneously considered the chief town of the latter people, though a Turkish garrison is maintained in it. To the E. of it, at the source of the *Lietani* is Baalbec, the ancient Heliopolis, both names signifying *the City of the Sun*: it is much celebrated for its magnificent ruins, and for the remains of one of the most beautiful temples in the world, which was supposed to have been dedicated to the worship of the sun.

43. Gaza, or Razze as it is also called, the capital of the sub-pachalic of Gaza, stands at a little distance from the Mediterranean on the borders of the Wadi Gaza, which runs into the sea; it is a poor and inconsiderable place, carrying on a few indifferent manufactures, which scarcely suffice for the subsistence of the 5,000 people by whom it is inhabited. To the N. of

is the Jaffa, or Yaffa, once a celebrated city, which owed much of its importance to its situation with regard to Jerusalem, of which it was the seaport. As a station for vessels, its harbour is now one of the worst in the Mediterranean, ships of any burden being obliged to anchor at some distance from the town to avoid the rocks and shoals. It is at present a poor and indifferent place, inhabited by about 6,000 people, composed of Turks, Arabs, Greeks, Maronites, and Armenians. It was attacked by the French in 1799, and is the place where Bonaparte visited such of his troops as were suffering from disease and the plague, to relieve them from their sufferings by his advice and assistance.

44. THE ISLAND OF CYPRUS, lying to the Westward of the Syrian pachalic of Tripoli, and so celebrated in ancient times for its ample population, its military aspect, and above all, as the abode of gaiety and pleasure, has sadly degraded from its former condition, owing to the despotic government of the Turks: its agriculture is neglected, its inhabitants oppressed, its population destroyed, and the whole island presents little else than contagion, poverty, indolence, and desolation. Its capital is Nicosia.

45. On the decline of the Roman empire Cyprus was for some time occupied by the Arabs, but they were driven from it during the Crusades, and the title of King of Cyprus was for some time held by Richard 1st of England. It fell into the hands of the Venetians A. D. 1480, but the Turks wrested it from them 90 years afterwards, and have ever since continued to keep possession of the island. Nicosia, or Lefkosia as it is also called, the chief town of Cyprus, is situated on the R. Pedias, not far from the centre of the island. It was formerly eight miles in circuit, but it is now scarcely thus, the Venetians having reduced it to a smaller compass, and surrounded it with very strong fortifications, which, even in their present ruined state, are said to exceed in magnificence those of almost every other city: the moat is nearly half a mile wide. The population of Nicosia is about 14,000 people, composed of Greeks, Turks, and Armenians; its most beautiful building is the Church of St. Sophia, where the kings of Cyprus were formerly crowned. Famagosta on the Eastern, with Larnica and Limesol on the Southern coast, are the other chief towns of Cyprus. Baffa, at the Western extremity of the island, is a miserable place, composed of about twenty or thirty huts, scattered amongst ruins and neglected gardens; it possesses no interest except what attaches to it as occupying the site of Paphos, the old capital of Cyprus.

46. ARMENIA is bounded on the N. by the Russian provinces of Mingrelia and Georgia, on the E. by the Persian province of Azerbijan, on the S. by the Turkish provinces of Kourdistan and Al Gezira, and on the W. by that of Syria: its limits, however, are very ill defined. It is divided into two great parts, Turkish Armenia and Russian Armenia: the latter of these was till lately

called Persian Armenia, but within a year or two it has changed its name with its masters. The Southern part of it is under the control of the Kourds, and is governed by a set of predatory independent chiefs, who acknowledge no sovereignty but their own.

47. The Armenians are one of the most ancient nations in the world, and are designated in their own language by the name of Haikani: they are thought to be a distinct race of people, seldom intermarrying with other tribes, whilst in their habits of industry, and in their disposition to migrate to foreign countries, they are not unlike the Jews. They have established themselves from the borders of Hungary to China, in the plains of Tartary, and in those of Nigritia; their extensive commercial dealings have made them known and respected throughout Turkey, Persia, and indeed all over the East: owing to their integrity and enterprise, as well as to their singular qualifications for commercial transactions, they are become in a great measure masters of the whole trade of the Levant, and are so much concerned with that of other places, that they are commonly met with at Leghorn and Venice, and even in England and Holland.

48. The Armenian religion is a peculiar system of Christianity, founded generally on the doctrines of the Eastern Church. Some have supposed that Christianity was established in Armenia by the apostle Bartholomew, but however this may be, it is certain that in the beginning of the fourth century the Armenian Christians were in a very flourishing state. It was not till the beginning of the sixth century that the Armenian Church seceded from the other establishments, and becoming independent, embraced the theory of the Jacobites, some few articles of discipline excepted: its schism is placed 84 years after the council of Chalcedon, and was fully consummated at the end of 17 years, or A. D. 552, from which period the era of the Armenians is dated. The Armenian church is governed by three patriarchs, the chief of whom resides in a monastery at Elichmiazin, near Erivan, and presides over 42 archbishops; he is elected by bishops, and his election is confirmed by the emperor of Russia. His revenues would enable him to live in the most splendid and magnificent manner, but he is not distinguished from the monks amongst whom he resides by any other circumstance, beyond that of his superior power and authority. Besides these three prelates, the Armenians have other spiritual leaders, who are honoured with the title of patriarchs, though it be unattended with the authority and prerogatives of the patriarchal dignity. They assume the title on account of some peculiar privileges conferred on them by the great patriarch of Elichmiazin; for, by an authority derived from him, they are allowed to consecrate bishops, and to distribute every third year amongst their congregations the holy chrism, or ointment, which according to a custom amongst the Eastern Christians, is the exclusive privilege of the patriarchs.

49. The storm of persecution has occasionally shaken the consistency of the Armenians, and caused many of them to apostatize to the Mahometan religion; so much so, that it was feared the branch of their Church, which had been planted in Persia, would gradually perish. On the other hand, the state of the Armenian religion derived considerable advantage from many of its members settling in different parts of Europe, for the purpose of commerce. Those merchants, who, during the 16th century had fixed their residence at London, Amsterdam, Venice, and Marseilles, were not unmindful of their brethren in their native country; but supplied them with

Armenian translations of the Holy Scriptures, and of many theological books, from the European presses, which prevented the illiterate and superstitious people, who lived under the Persian and Turkish governments, from sinking into the most consummate and deplorable ignorance. The Armenians are sometimes termed Monophysites, from the words *μόνος* solus and *φύσις* natura, owing to their maintaining that the Divine and human natures of Christ were so united as to form only *one nature*, yet without any change, confusion, or mixture, of the two natures. They are likewise occasionally denominated Eutychians, from one Eutyches, abbot of a monastery at Constantinople, who began to propagate this opinion in the middle of the fifth century. But though the Armenians agree with the other Monophysites in the main doctrine of that sect, nevertheless they differ from them in many points of faith, discipline, and worship. They agree, as to the Eucharist, nearly with the Greeks: and many of the customs which they observe are completely Jewish. They are so superstitiously addicted to fasting, that to a casual observer their whole religion seems to consist in it; the higher the rank of the clergy, so much the greater must be their abstinence. They have particular days in the week set apart for this religious mortification; and in addition to the great Lent, they observe four or five others of eight days each, preparatory for some of their principal festivals.

50. The town of Diarbekir, capital of the pachalic of the same name, is situated on the Western arm of the R. Tigris, not far from its source, and about 60 miles from that part of the Euphrates which forms the common limits of Asia Minor, Syria, and Diarbekir. It is likewise called Kara Amid, or the *Black Amid*, by the Turks, from its occupying the site of the ancient Amida, and being surrounded by a lofty thick wall of black stone: this wall, which is thought to have been built by the Romans, is fortified by numerous towers, but the whole is now in a neglected and ruinous condition. The town is also encompassed with a ditch, and has a strong castle on the North side, which is likewise surrounded by a wall, and divided into many courts and handsome buildings, wherein the pacha resides. Diarbekir likewise contains a large and magnificent mosque, which was formerly a Christian church, a handsome Armenian cathedral, and several fine bazars well stored with rich merchandize. The inhabitants consist of Turks, Armenians, Greeks, Kourds, and Jacobites, but by far a greater proportion of the first.

51. Arzroum, or Erzeroum as it is also called, lies to the N. E. of Diarbekir, about midway between the sources of the Aras and Euphrates. It is the capital of a pachalic of the same name, the metropolis of Armenia, and the centre of all the commerce between Turkey and Persia. It is situated on elevated ground at the base of a high chain of mountains, which are usually covered with snow, and hence, though the climate is healthy, the cold in winter is intense. The town is well built, and is surrounded by a double stone wall with four gates: the houses are generally of stone, with terraces, on the top of which are gardens with trees and grass growing on

them, so that when seen from a distance, the roofs of the houses can hardly be distinguished from the neighbouring hills. The population is composed of Turks, Armenians, Greeks, and Persians, and amounts to about 70,000 souls.

52. The town of Akalzike, the old capital of the pachalic of Akalzike or Tcheldir, has lately been ceded to the Russians; it stands on the frontiers of Georgia, to the left of the R. Kur, and at the foot of the range of hills formerly known as the Moschici Montes. Below it, upon one of the tributaries of the R. Aras, called Kars, lies Kars, the chief town of the pachalic of that name; it is situated upon a rock, surrounded by ramparts, and ditches, and defended by a strong citadel, which causes it to be considered one of the most important defences towards the Russian frontier. It is an exceedingly ill-built place, though it possesses a great number of mosques, as well as many Armenian monasteries and churches. Van, the capital of the pachalic of Van, is a large and well-fortified city in the Easternmost part of Armenia, not far distant from the Persian province of Azerbijan. It stands on the Eastern bank of Lake Van, which is upwards of 100 miles in circuit, but its water is too brackish to be used for the purposes of life. The city is remarkably well built, and is defended on the N. by a strong castle standing on a high and perpendicular rock rising very abruptly from the plain. It is abundantly supplied with water and provisions, and contains about 45,000 inhabitants, of whom two-thirds are Turks, and the remainder Armenians and Kourds.

53. KOURDISTAN, or Curdistan as it is sometimes written, is bounded on the N. by Armenia, on the E. by the Persian provinces of Azerbijan and Irak Ajemi, on the S. by Irak Arabi, and on the W. by Al Gezira. It derives its name from the Kourds, who are a Nomadic race of people, and occasionally employ themselves in tilling the ground and feeding cattle: they are a lawless and merciless set of ruffians, living chiefly on plunder, and subject neither to the Turks nor Persians, though inhabiting the territory, and at times acknowledging the authority of both. The capital of Kourdistan is Mosul on the R. Tigris.

54. The Kourds are the dread of all travellers from every nation, for they can never be trusted, and their attacks are not only sudden and surprising, but barbarous and unsparing. They speak the Persian language, mixed up with many Arabic, Syrian, and Chaldæan words. They follow the Mahometan religion, upon which they have engrafted numberless superstitions, supposed to be the remains of the old creed of the Magi: many of them, however, are Nestorian Christians, so called from the Syrian monk Nestorius, who promulgated his opinions about the beginning of the fifth century. The Kourds obey two patriarchs and many bishops, all of whose dignities are hereditary. They observe a kind of feudal government, each village having its chief, who is subject to the prince of the tribe: the whole

nation is divided into three principal factions, which are constantly contending with each other for the superiority, and this state of anarchy is still farther increased by every petty tribe revolting against its prince and dethroning him, whenever it has the power.

55. Mesul, or Mossoul as it is also called, the chief town of the pachalic of the same name, and the capital of Kourdistan, stands opposite the site of the ancient city Nineveh, on the West or right bank of the Tigris, which is here deep and rapid, and is crossed by a bridge of boats. It is surrounded by a wall and ditches, and defended by a strong castle, but, like almost every other town in the Ottoman Dominions, it is in a neglected and declining state. Its population is composed of Kourds, Turks, Armenians, Jews, Nestorians, and Arabs. The city is very large, and contains many handsome buildings, exclusive of mosques, churches, baths, and bazars; but the whole space included within the walls is not occupied with houses, many places being covered with ruins, which amply shew it was once far more populous than it now is. It carries on many manufactures, particularly that of *muslins*, which are said to have obtained their name from this place. Shahrasour is situated to the S. E. of Mosul, towards the Persian frontier; it stands on a branch of the Little Zab R. or Altun Sou, which is a tributary of the Tigris. Though the chief town of the pachalic, it is a place of very little consequence except as a border-town.

56. AL GEZIRA, or *The Island*, corresponds generally with the ancient Mesopotamia, and has obtained its name from its peninsular situation between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris. It is bounded on the N. by Armenia, on the E. by Kourdistan and Irak Arabi, on the S. by Arabia, and on the W. by Syria. It contains much desert country, but its desolate condition is not so much attributable to this as to the oppressions and exactions of the Turkish government, which entirely prevent any thing like improvement, and rather tend to encourage the ravages of the roving Kourds and Arabs who infest it, than to repress their rapacious and plundering cruelty. The chief town of Al Gezira, is Orfa, or Ourfa as it is sometimes written, and called also Roha; it is the capital of the pachalic of Orfa or Racca, and occupies the site of the ancient Edessa.

57. The town of Orfa stands in the North Western part of the province, towards the limits of Syria, on the banks of the little R. Daisan, which, after joining the Giallab, loses itself in a small lake about 25 miles below the town. Orfa is built on parts of two hills and in the valley between them, and is about three miles in circumference, being surrounded with walls defended by square towers. Some parts of the town are tolerably well built, though on the whole it is not conveniently laid out; its great beauty consists in some fine springs which rise very plentifully between the two hills, and even at the very walls of the city. It derives considerable importance from being the only town of the least magnitude in this part of the country, and

from its being a great thoroughfare from Asia Minor and Syria to Bagdad and the Persian provinces. Racea, the other town from which the pachalic likewise derives its name, lies to the South of Orfa, on the Northern or left bank of the Euphrates, where it receives the waters of the little R. Beles. It is a very inconsiderable place, though once the favourite residence of the celebrated calif Haroun al Raschid, the ruins of whose palace may be still seen here: the whole of the neighbouring country is occupied by various tribes of Arabs.

58. **IRAK ARABI**, or the Arabian Irak, so called in contradistinction to the Persian province of Irak Ajemi, is the South Eastern, and one of the most valuable, of all the Ottoman provinces, though it is nearly independent of the Grand Seignor. It corresponds generally with the ancient Babylonia, and is bounded on the N. by Al Gezira and Kourdistan, on the W. and S. by Arabia, and on the E. by Irak Ajemi and Khuzistan. It is a beautiful and productive country, being watered by the Euphrates and Tigris, and their tributary streams; some parts indeed are barren and uncultivated, and the hordes of lawless brigands by whom it is allowed to be ravaged, contribute mainly to the neglect into which it is fallen.

59. Its metropolis is Bagdad, the capital of a pachalic of the same name, situated on both sides of the Tigris, but chiefly on the Eastern bank of the river. It is a place of great wealth and power, and a noted emporium for the products of India, Persia, and Arabia, as well as for many European manufactures: the bazars consist of a magnificent display of 1,200 shops, where every description of Eastern merchandize may be found. It is likewise a great place of thoroughfare, and is resorted to by all kinds of travellers, not only for the purposes of commerce and to satisfy curiosity, but to visit the tombs of the many saints which it contains: amongst these is the reputed tomb of the Prophet Ezekiel. Its population is estimated at about 80,000 persons; of whom 50,000 are supposed to be Arabs, 25,000 Turks, 2,500 Jews, 1,500 Christians, and 1,000 Kourds.

60. Bagdad was founded A. D. 766, by the calif Abu Jaafar Almansur, and it continued the seat of the califs and the capital of the Moslem Empire for about 500 years. The famous Al Raschid reigned here in the ninth century; under his auspices, and those of his queen Zobeida, and his vizier Barmakead, so celebrated in Eastern story, it rose to splendour and renown, and became such a great and magnificent city, that it is said to have once contained 2,000,000 inhabitants. In the year 1258 it was taken by Hulaku,

the grandson of Genghiz Khan, who abolished the caliphate. The famous Turkish emperor Amurath IVth. besieged it in 1638, with an army of 300,000 men, and after having obtained possession of it, he gave it up to plunder, when a great proportion of the inhabitants were inhumanly massacred. Since this period it has greatly declined in extent and magnificence, but it still is one of the most important cities in the Ottoman Empire. It is of an oblong form, about five miles in circuit, and surrounded by a high brick wall; the houses are generally of one story, with no windows towards the streets, and the streets themselves are unpaved and dirty, and so narrow that in most of them two horsemen can scarcely pass each other abreast. On the whole, it possesses but few great edifices; and, notwithstanding its celebrity, is very far inferior to many of the other Eastern cities.

61. The other pachalic of Irak Arabi is Bassora, or Basrah as it is also called, so named from its capital Bassora. This city stands on the Shut ul Arab, about midway between the Persian Gulf and the junction of the Euphrates with the Tigris, about 60 miles from the former: it is about six miles in circuit, and is surrounded by a wall. The houses are exceedingly mean, and the bazars, though containing the richest productions of the East, are but miserable buildings. Bassora is the grand emporium for all the produce of India sent to the Turkish empire: hence nearly all its inhabitants are connected with trade, and it has become the residence of many merchants from India, Arabia, Turkey, Armenia, and Greece, as well as of many wealthy and enterprising Jews. Vessels of tolerable burden can sail up the river to Bassora, whence their cargoes are conducted into the interior by means of caravans to Bagdad and Aleppo, and so to Constantinople. The English and Dutch have consuls at Bassora, and many of their ships trade regularly to it with merchandize from India. The Turks have but little power in Bassora; indeed the authority of the Grand Seignor is scarcely acknowledged: the language chiefly spoken is that of the Arabs, whose ascendancy is submitted to in many other respects, from the town being situated within the limits of their country. Besides Mahometans, there are Syrian Jacobites and Nestorians in the city, as well as many monks from Europe, and a number of Sabæans.

62. The superficial contents of the whole Ottoman Empire in Europe and Asia amount to 520,200 square miles, the population of which, in 1828, was estimated at 23,394,000 souls. During the height of the Turkish power, its dominions in Africa were almost as extensive as those in Asia; but at present the Sublime Porte can hardly be said to have any footing in this continent. It still, however, extends its pretensions over Egypt, and the Barbary states of Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers, although the pachas and governors of those countries are independent of its control; the total territory thus claimed, together with its possessions in Europe and Asia, amounts to a superficial extent of 806,700 square miles, inhabited by about 35,894,000 souls.

CHAPTER XVIII.

ARABIA.

1. ARABIA is bounded on the E. by the Gulf of Persia, which separates it from the kingdom of Persia; on the S. by the Indian Ocean; on the W. by the Red Sea and the Isthmus of Suez, which divide it from the continent of Africa; and on the N. by the Torrent of Egypt, the Dead Sea, the Desert of Palmyra, and the R. Euphrates, which part it from the Ottoman Empire. Its peninsular shape has led the Arabs to call it *Geziret-el-Arab*, *i. e.* the *island of Arabia*. It contains about 859,300 square miles, or about as many as the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, France, Spain, Belgium, Holland, Sweden, and Germany, taken together: its population is estimated at 11,000,000 souls, but this is very uncertain, and, considering the great extent of the country, it is exceedingly limited.

2. PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS. Mount Shehr, anciently called Seir, is the continuation of Mt. Lebanon in Syria, and is situated in the N. W. part of Arabia on the borders of Syria and Egypt: one of its summits, now known as Mt. Haroun, is remarkable as having been the mountain into which Aaron went up at the commandment of God, and died, in the 40th year after the children of Israel had come out of Egypt. The range of Mt. Seir terminates to the Southward, near the shores of the Red Sea, in the lofty peaks of Sinai and Horeb, or Mt. St. Catherine and Om Shomar as they are now called: it was from the former of these that God was pleased in an awful manner to deliver his law to the Israelites. There is a chain of mountains represented to run through the Northern part of Arabia, between the heads of the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf, which amongst other names bears that of Ramleah: from it towards the Southward run out several other ranges,

but so little has been discovered in the interior of Arabia, that their very names are unknown.

3. RIVERS. Arabia is a vast arid desert, interspersed with spots of fertile ground, which, though comparatively small and few in number, are so remarkably productive as to furnish sufficient support for the whole population. The only known river of any consequence in the country is the Aftan, which rises in Iemama in the centre of Arabia, and after a N. E. course of about 350 miles enters the Persian Gulf below the town of El-Katif. In the Southern part of Arabia are the rivers Prim and Hargiah; in its Western part are those of Zebid, Sherres, Suncan, Obhoor, and Akik.

4. The climate of Arabia is temperate in the mountainous parts of the country, but in most other situations the heat is intolerable. During the summer season the desert between Bassora and Mecca is infested by a pestiferous wind, called the Simoom or Samiel, which occasions instant suffocation, and is generally accompanied by moving clouds of sand that completely overwhelm the traveller. It is ordinarily preceded by a red or purple appearance in the quarter whence it blows; and, owing to the otherwise pure air breathed by the Arabs of the desert, they are said to be usually aware of its approach by its sulphureous smell: the only method they have of escaping from this scorching blast, is to throw themselves on the ground, and to bury their faces in the sand till it has passed over their heads. The horses and camels of Arabia have long been celebrated for their excellent qualities: the latter, emphatically called "the Ship of the desert," is peculiarly fitted for such a country, being extremely docile, capable of enduring fatigue and uncommon abstinence, as well as of undergoing every hardship to which it is exposed under a dry and burning climate.

5. SEAS. The Arabian Gulf or Red Sea, which bounds the whole W. coast of Arabia, is 1,200 miles long, and 170 miles across in its broadest part: it is an arm of the Indian Ocean, from which it is separated by the narrow St. of Bab-el-Mandeb. Its Northern part is divided into two arms or heads, the Eastern one of which is called the G. of Akaba, and the Western one the Sea of Suez: it was over this latter arm of the Red Sea that it pleased God to show his Almighty power, by causing the Children of Israel to pass through it on dry ground, after he had divided the waters so that they were as a wall unto them on their right hand and on their left; whilst the Egyptians, who pursued after them, were utterly destroyed, by the sea returning to its strength. The Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb [or the G.

of *Death* as the name signifies] is 14 miles across, and is formed by C. Bab-el-Mandeb in Arabia and the opposite cape Ras Bir in Africa: the sea between it and the main part of the Indian Ocean is called the Sea of Bab-el-Mandeb. The Persian Gulf, which bounds Arabia on its E. side, is so called from its washing the coast of Persia: it is 520 miles long, and generally about 120 miles broad. It is likewise an arm of the Indian Ocean, with which it communicates through the St. of Bumbarrack: this strait is formed by C. Musseldom in Arabia and C. Bumbarrack in Persia. The G. of Persia contains several minor bays, as the G. of the Great Pearl Bank, Katif Bay, and Graen Harbour on the coast of Arabia; and the Bay of Busheer and the G. of Ormuz on the coast of Persia.

6. CAPES. Amongst the principal promontories of Arabia may be mentioned Ras Mahomet, below Mt. Sinai, the Southernmost point of Arabia Petraea in the Red Sea; C. Bab-el-Mandeb, the S. W. extremity of the peninsula; Ras-el-Had, its Easternmost point; C. Musseldom, at the entrance of the G. of Persia; and Ras Reccan within the gulf.

7. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The Arabs are Mahometans. The patriarchal government has prevailed amongst them from the remotest antiquity, but it is now in a manner ecclesiastical, because all civil proceedings rest on the law of the Koran. In the most fertile districts, monarchies of greater or less extent have long existed: the three principal chiefs are, the Prince of the Wuhabees, the Prince of Yemen, and the Imam of Muscat; the two last being in a manner tributary to the first, though they are nearly independent.

8. The Arabians, or Arabs, are divided into many tribes, ruled by their own independent chiefs, called Imams, Emirs, and Shekhs, whose power and character are altogether different. The title of Imam, equivalent to that of Vicar of the Prophet, is also synonymous with that of Calif or Emir, i. e. prince of the faithful: the Imams pretend to be descendants of Mahomet. The population of some of these tribes amounts to several thousands, whilst others consist only of a few individuals. The majority of the people dwell in tents made of camels' hair, wandering about with their whole property from place to place, chiefly in quest of subsistence for themselves and their flocks. Many of them, however, are such notorious

free, or a passport from one of their chiefs: they are described in general as a set of lawless banditti, hostile to good order, and ever on the watch to plunder the unguarded traveller, who, if he should fall into their power, may deem himself fortunate to escape with his life. Yet the person of a stranger, who is once under the protection of an Arab, is esteemed so sacred, that he is guarded from every injury and often conducted to a place of safety: hospitality is in general considered to be a duty from which nothing can release him. The wandering Arabs are frequently called Bedouins; a name which they are thought to have obtained from their peculiar course of life, though others are of opinion that it belongs to a tribe totally distinct from all the others: their manners do not seem essentially to differ from those of the Arabs in general, though they are found dispersed in great numbers through many parts of Asia and Africa. These various Nomadic tribes are considered as the genuine Arabs of the Desert, and have preserved in the greatest purity the character and manners of their ancestors: the sedentary Arabs, who inhabit cities, towns, and villages, are more effeminate, and have lost, by intermixture with other nations, much of their original character.

9. Mahometanism, or the system of religion broached by the impostor Mahomet, and still adhered to by his followers, is contained in the Koran, or Al-Koran as it is frequently called, and is professed by the Turks, Arabians, Persians, many nations in the East Indies, and several in Africa: the number of Mahometans is estimated to be the same as that of the Christians, viz. about one-fifth part of the whole population of the globe, the remaining three-fifths being pagans. The chief article of the Mahometan creed is, that "there is no God but one God, and Mahomet was his prophet." For this reason the Mahometans account all such as hold any thing of number in the divinity to be infidels or idolaters; and hence they are distinguished from India to Morocco, and from the banks of the Danube to the plains of Nigritia, by the name of Unitarians: the danger of idolatry has been prevented by the interdiction of images. They exclude all other religions, under pretence that Mahomet was the last and the greatest of all the prophets that God would ever send; and that, as the Jewish religion ceased with the coming of The Messiah, so likewise the Christian religion was abrogated by the appearance of Mahomet. They acknowledge Moses and Jesus Christ to have been great Prophets; but they hold Mahomet to have been "The Prophet," by way of excellence, commissioned to purge the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament

[which books they allow] from the corruptions introduced into them by Jews and Christians, and to restore the Law of God to its original purity: they also acknowledge the Paraclete or Comforter promised in the Scriptures.

10. The Mahometans call their religion *Islam*, which we Europeans have altered into *Islamism*: the name is said by some to denote *resignation* or *submission* to the service of God, but others maintain it to be derived from the root *Salama* or *Musalam*, signifying to be *saved*. Hence too the title of Moslem, Mosleman, or Mussulman, by which the Mahometans are distinguished: for they established their religion by fire and sword, massacred all those who would not embrace it, and granted life to all that did, calling them *Mussulmans*, i. e. *erepti e periculo*; whence the word became, in course of time, the distinguishing title of all belonging to that sect, who have affixed to it the signification of *true believer*. The Mahometans divide their profession into two distinct parts, viz. *imán* i. e. faith or theory, and *dén* i. e. religion or practice; and teach that it is built on five fundamental points, one belonging to faith, and the other four to practice. Under the confession of faith they comprehend Belief in God; in his angels; in his scriptures; in his prophets; in the resurrection, and day of judgment; and in his absolute decree and predetermination both of good and evil. The four points relating to practice are, prayer (under which are comprehended certain washings or purifications considered by them as necessary preparations before prayer); alms; fasting; and the pilgrimage to Mecca. Besides their belief in angels, they also admit an intermediate order of beings, called *genii*, some of which are good, and others bad, both being capable of future salvation or condemnation as men are: hence Mahomet pretended that he was sent for the conversion of *genii* as well as of men.

11. As to the Scriptures, the Mahometans are taught by the Koran, that in divers ages of the world God gave revelations of his will in writing to several prophets, the whole and every word of which it is absolutely necessary for every good Mussulman to believe. Mahomet acknowledges the Divine authority of the Pentateuch, Psalms, and Gospels, often appealing to the consonancy of the Koran with those writings, and to the prophecies which he pretended they contained concerning himself, though the Jews and Christians had entirely suppressed them. Besides these books, the Mahometans take notice of the writings of Daniel and many other prophets, and even cite them; but they do not believe them to be Divine Scripture, or of any authority in matters of religion: they reckon between one and two hundred thousand prophets, and three hundred and thirteen apostles, each of whom bore a special commission to reclaim mankind from infidelity and superstition.

12. The Mahometans maintain, that at death the bodies of those, who believe the unity of God and the mission of their prophet, rest in peace and are refreshed with the air of paradise: otherwise, they are grievously tormented. The souls of the former are conveyed to heaven, where a place is assigned to them according to their merit and degree; those of the wicked are tormented, till they are rejoined to their bodies at the resurrection, the approach of which will be known by certain great signs that will precede it. After the day of judgment (which in one passage the Koran says will last 1,000 years, and in another 50,000 years), the good and wicked are conducted to a bridge, called *Al-Sirat*, over which the former shall safely pass,

Mahomet and his Moslems leading the way; but the latter will fall down headlong into the depths of perdition, where there are seven different apartments, adapted to as many distinct classes of the condemned, who will suffer from excessive heat and intense cold. In this state infidels only will be liable to eternal punishment; for the Moslems, or believers, will be delivered thence after they have expiated their crimes by their sufferings. The righteous, after having passed the bridge above mentioned, will be refreshed by drinking at the pond of their prophet, and then admitted into paradise, situated in the seventh heaven and next to the throne of God; where they will feed on the most delicious fruits, be clothed in the most splendid silken garments, refreshed with rivers of water, wine, milk, and honey, and entertained with sensual enjoyments.

13. The Koran states, that women as well as men will not only be punished for their evil actions, but also receive the reward of their good deeds, and that both will enjoy a perpetual youth. Hence it appears, that the vulgar opinion, which charges the Mahometans with maintaining that women have no souls, or if they have any, that they will perish like the brutes without any future recompence, is erroneous. It is, however, a general notion, that they will not be admitted into the same paradisaical abode as the men, and that their places will be supplied by certain beings, called *Houris*, formed with singular beauty and undecaying charms. With respect to predestination, the Mahometans believe that every thing which happens in the world proceeds entirely from the Divine Will, and is irrevocably fixed from all eternity in the preserved table; God having secretly predestined, not only the prosperous and adverse fortune of every person in this world, in the most minute particulars, but also his faith or infidelity, his obedience or disobedience, and consequently, his everlasting happiness or misery after death; which fate or predestination it is not possible for any foresight or wisdom to avoid. Mahomet makes great use of this doctrine in the Koran for the advancement of his designs, encouraging his followers to fight without fear, and even desperately, for the propagation of their faith, representing to them that no caution on their part could avert their inevitable destiny, or prolong their lives for a moment. The injunction of warring against infidels is repeated in several passages in the Koran, and declared to be very meritorious in the sight of God; those who are slain fighting in defence of the faith, being reckoned martyrs and promised immediate admission into paradise.

14. Mahomet has obliged his followers to pray five times every twenty-four hours, at certain stated seasons, turning their faces towards the temple of Mecca, which is always pointed to by a niche in their mosques: they never perform this duty in sumptuous apparel, nor suffer women to attend them on these occasions, lest their presence should interfere with their devotion. The giving of alms is legal and voluntary, and is frequently inculcated by the Koran. Fasting is called by Mahomet the gate of religion, and his followers are expressly commanded to fast during the month of Ramadan: this they observe by abstaining from meat, drink, and many other enjoyments, from day-break till sunset. Besides this, they have several other voluntary fasts. The months held sacred by the ancient Arabs were the seventh, eleventh, and twelfth in the year, and Mahomet, in the Koran, has confirmed the observance of these. The day of the week which he set apart for public worship is Friday; besides which they have two annual feasts called Bairam. The pilgrimage to Mecca is expressly commanded in the Koran, and is so necessary a point of practice, that, according to a tradition of Mahomet, he who dies without performing it, may as well die

a Christian or a Jew: the various ceremonies prescribed to those who perform this pilgrimage are extremely absurd and ridiculous, and appear to be relics of idolatrous superstition. The Mahometans are likewise required by the Koran to abstain from wine, gaming, usury, divining by arrows, eating of blood and swines' flesh, and whatever dies of itself, or is slain in honour of any idol, or strangled, or killed by accident or by any other beast. The Koran allows polygamy within certain limits, forbidding any man to have more than four wives and concubines; but Mahomet had the privilege of marrying as many wives and keeping as many concubines as he pleased.

15. Mahomet, or Mohammed as the name is sometimes written, the founder of that system of religious imposture which is called Mahometanism, was descended from the tribe of Koreish, and the family of Hashem, the most illustrious of the Arabs, the princes of Mecca, and the hereditary guardians of the Kaaba. He was born at Mecca four months after the death of the emperor Justinian, and two months after the defeat of the Abyssinians, whose victory would have introduced the Christian religion into the Kaaba, A. D. 569. The earlier part of his life was passed in the occupations of a merchant, and it was not till the 40th year of his age that he assumed the title of a prophet, and proclaimed the religion of the Koran. He possessed the courage both of thought and action; educated amidst the noblest race, he acquired a fluency of speech in the purest dialect of Arabia; and he had the art, on proper occasions, of observing a discreet silence. But, notwithstanding these accomplishments, he was an illiterate barbarian, inasmuch that his youth had never been instructed in the arts of reading and writing. Availing himself of the character of the age in which he lived, and of the circumstances of the people amongst whom his lot was cast, his sagacity led him to improve even his want of literature, as a means of more effectually gaining proselytes, and of propagating his imposture. Whatever knowledge he acquired must have been the result of his intercourse with those pilgrims who annually resorted to Mecca from various countries, with views of devotion or of commerce: and from this source he derived most, if not all, of his acquaintance with the political state and character of the several Arabian tribes, as well as with the theology and ceremonial institutions of the Christians and Jews.

16. His first convert, after he had opened his pretended mission, was his wife Khadijah, to whom he communicated an interview with which he had been favoured by the angel Gabriel, who had told him that he was appointed the apostle of God; and to whom he also repeated a passage which he pretended had been revealed to him by the ministry of the angel, together with some other circumstances of this first appearance, which are related at length by Mahometan writers. After this he converted some of his other relations and friends, but proceeded for three years without exciting public attention: in the fourth year of his mission he openly assumed the prophetic office, and announced his having received a divine appointment for the illumination and conversion of his near relations. Upon this he addressed forty of his own race with the offer of happiness, both in this life and that which is to come, for which he pleaded a divine authority and command, and appointed one of them to be his companion and Vizier. His followers, however, were unable to continue at Mecca in safety, owing to the threats and violence of the tribe Koreish; and Mahomet, unable to protect them, gave them leave to depart, and seek refuge wherever they could find it. But persecution, instead of retarding, greatly accelerated the progress of this imposture: the friends of Mahomet became gradually more numerous and powerful, until it was found necessary to form a league

against them, and finally to hunt "the prophet" himself out of Mecca. After many difficulties and dangers he found an asylum at Medina, some of its noblest citizens having been previously converted by his preaching during their pilgrimage to Mecca, and on their return diffused the belief of God and "his prophet." This flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina has fixed the memorable era of "The Hegira," a word signifying in the Arabic tongue *flight* or *departure*: this epoch is used by the Arabs and Mahometans for the computation of time, and commenced A. D. 622, or in the 12th year of Mahomet's pretended mission*.

17. The new alliance between Mahomet and the people of Medina was ratified by the latter protesting in the name of their wives, children, and closest brethren, that they would for ever profess the creed, and observe the precepts of the Koran. When Mahomet was established at Mecca, he assumed the exercise of the regal and sacerdotal office; and having acquired, either by gift or purchase, a piece of ground, built upon it a temple of worship and a residence for himself. His proselytes increased with amazing rapidity, and being now exalted by the choice of an independent people to the rank of a sovereign, he was invested with the offices of waging offensive and defensive war: he accordingly assumed a fiercer and more sanguinary tone than he had been accustomed to use, when his moderation was the effect of his weakness. In announcing his revelations, he pretended to have received commands for propagating his religion by the sword, for destroying the monuments of idolatry, and for pursuing the unbelieving nations of the earth. He carefully and diligently trained his followers for the warfare, to which he intended to conduct them, and displayed his white banner before the walls of Medina; uniting the professions of a merchant and a robber, in petty excursions for the attack of a caravan gradually prepared his troops for the conquest of all Arabia. The distribution of the spoil was regulated, as he pretended, by a divine law; one-fifth of it being reserved by himself for pious and charitable uses, and the remainder distributed amongst such of his troops as had lent their assistance in gaining it. From all sides the Arabs were allured to the standard of superstition and plunder: "the prophet" indulged the disposition of his countrymen by sanctifying the commission of the grossest indignities upon the captives, and the enjoyments afforded by such a system of merciless rapine were pronounced by him to be

* This event, which took place in the time and manner above stated, though little memorable in itself, and deriving no celebrity from the circumstances attending it, was, eighteen years afterwards, distinguished by Omar, the second Calif, as the crisis of their new religion, and established as an epoch, to which the dates of all the transactions of "the faithful," should have reference in future time. Previous to this, the people had been accustomed to compute from the commencement of a particular war, the day of a remarkable battle, or other occasional event of importance to their little communities. In order to remedy this confusion, the Calif enjoined the observance of a determinate era, in which the strongest prejudices of the people should be made to concur with the sovereign authority: the date of the Hegira was therefore from that time forward always expressed in every public act and letter. Owing to the difference between the length of our year and that of the Mahometans, the commencement of each year of the Hegira never falls on the same day of the month according to our calendar, but anticipates about eleven days: the year of our Lord 1833 corresponds with the year 1248-9 of the Hegira, the Mahometan new year commencing about the 20th of May in that year.

but a feeble type of the joys of paradise prepared for "the martyrs of the faith."

18. The first military expedition undertaken by Mahomet, and which in the event served to establish his reputation, was against the Koraish, whom he completely reduced to obedience. He subsequently marched against a Jewish tribe who had assisted them, and after having conquered them, he compelled 700 of them to descend alive into the grave prepared for their execution and burial: plunder and cruelty marked his future footsteps against this people, and the seat of their power in Arabia was speedily reduced. It is somewhat singular that a hatred of the Jews, to whose Scriptures he was indebted for the best parts of his religion, should have formed so distinguishing a feature in the character of the Arabian prophet. Subsequent to this he marched against Mecca, of which he finally gained possession, not only by his superior force but by the affected devotion and crafty policy, which he found it useful amply to display: the inhabitants of the city obtained their pardon by the profession of Islam, and, after an exile of seven years, the fugitive missionary was enthroned as the prince and prophet of his native country. The 360 idols of the Kaaba were ignominiously demolished; the temple was purified and adorned; and an unchangeable law was enacted, that no unbeliever should dare to set his foot on the territory of "the holy city."

19. The conquest of Mecca determined the faith and obedience of the Arabian tribes, who being awed, or divided, or subdued, severally submitted, and thus increased the power of Mahomet. The temples and idols of the country were every where destroyed, and the ambassadors, who prostrated themselves before the throne of Medina, were as numerous, according to an Arabian proverb, as the dates that fall from the maturity of a palm-tree. The whole nation submitted to the God and the Sceptre of Mahomet, and 114,000 Moslems accompanied the last pilgrimage of this successful impostor. On this occasion he took with him all his wives, fifteen in number, for however he might restrict his disciples as to polygamy by the precepts of his religion, he claimed a special exemption for himself in this matter, and pretended a special revelation which dispensed with his observance of the laws imposed by him upon his nation: and he even carried his hypocrisy so far as to insert new chapters in the Koran, containing these special dispensations. He likewise took with him a number of camels intended for sacrifice, and the ceremonial which he observed at the sacred city, has served as a model to the Moslems of succeeding ages.

20. It was in the 7th. year of the Hegira that Mahomet began to think of propagating his religion beyond the bounds of Arabia, and deputed messengers to invite the neighbouring princes to embrace Mahometanism. The Persians, with their sovereign, after some hesitation, avowed themselves proselytes. The emperor Heraclius at first treated his message with respect, and it has been idly said of him, that he would have professed the new faith if he had not been afraid of losing his crown. Mahomet prepared to effect by conquest what he failed to accomplish by a peaceful message, but he was obliged to desist from the undertaking as too hazardous, and indeed impracticable. The first conflict between the troops of Mahomet and the emperor Heraclius took place in Palestine in the 8th. year of the Hegira, when the three chief leaders of the army of "the faithful" were left dead on the field: but the Mahometan name spread such terror around, that the prophet received the submission of the tribes and cities from the R. Euphrates to Ailah at the head of the Red Sea. In the confidence of his power he had declared war against Heraclius, and commenced marching

towards the Syrian frontier, but the fatigues which he encountered induced him to rest satisfied with writing to the emperor urging his conversion, after which he returned to Medina.

21. Till the age of 63 years, Mahomet retained a vigour of constitution which enabled him to endure the corporeal and spiritual fatigues of his mission; in the course of this imposture, he had fought in person at nine battles or sieges, and fifty military enterprizes had been achieved by himself or his lieutenants. He ascribed the cause of his death to poison administered to him by a Jewish female, from a motive of revenge, as some have said, or according to others, from a desire of putting his prophetic character to the test: however this may be, his mortal disease was a fever of 14 days, which at intervals deprived him of the use of his reason. He died A. D. 632, in the 11th. year of the Hegira, at the age of 63. He was interred at Medina, in a grave dug in the chamber where he died, over which a magnificent building was erected by one of the succeeding califs. It is hardly necessary to mention, unless with a view of exposing it, the vulgar and ridiculous story invented and propagated by the Greeks and Latins, that Mahomet's tomb is suspended in the air at Mecca by the action of equal and potent load-stones: for he was not buried at Mecca, and his tomb at Medina, which has been visited by millions, is placed on the ground. He was succeeded, agreeably to his wishes, by his friend and favourite Aboubeker, who, after a reign of two years was followed by Omar: the latter, in the 12th. year of his reign, received a mortal wound from the hand of an assassin, and made way for the succession of Othman, the secretary of Mahomet. After the third Calif, and 24 years after the death of the prophet, the popular choice fell upon Ali, who was accordingly invested with the regal and sacerdotal office.

22. After the death of Mahomet, a schism arose amongst his followers, which divided them into two great factions, whose separation not only gave rise to a variety of opinions and rites, but also excited the most implacable hatred and the most deadly animosities. Of these factions, the one acknowledged Aboubeker, the father-in-law of Mahomet, as his successor and the true calif, and its members were distinguished by the name of *Sonnites*; while the other adhered to Ali, the prophet's son-in-law, and were known by the name of *Schiites*. Both adhered to the Koran as a divine law, and the rule of faith and manners; to which indeed the former added, by way of interpretation, the *Sonna*, i. e. a certain law, which they looked upon as descended from Mahomet by oral tradition, and which the *Schiites* refused to admit. The *Sonnites* are sometimes called the Sect of Omar, from their following the interpretation of the Koran given by Omar: whilst the *Schiites* are termed the Sect of Ali, from their having followed the doctrines of Ali on the same subjects. The Turks, Tartars, Arabians, Africans, and many part of the Indian Mahometans are *Sonnites*; whereas the Persians and many of the subjects of the Grand Mogul are generally considered as *Schiites*, though the latter seem rather to observe a strict neutrality in this contest. Besides these two grand factions, there are other subordinate sects among the Mahometans, which dispute with warmth concerning several points of religion, though without violating the rule of mutual toleration.

23. Several califs succeeded Mahomet, and ruled with powerful sway in different parts of Arabia, but their families were gradually extinguished: they were succeeded by various sovereigns, who made themselves masters of several districts, till at last the Turks overran almost every province in the country. About the year 1720, a shekh, named Abd-ul-Wehhab, was born in the district of Nedsjed, in the central part of Arabia, and studied there,

or at Medina, those branches of science and learning which are usually cultivated in the country. Having travelled in several of the surrounding countries, he returned to his native place to propagate his opinions amongst his countrymen, and succeeded in converting several shekhs, whose subjects became followers of this new teacher. Abd-ul-Wehhab, whilst acknowledging fully the authority of the Koran, professed obedience only to the literal text of this book, rejecting all the additions of the imams and doctors of law, and condemning many superstitions which had gradually crept into the faith. He forbade all devotion to the person of the prophet, and pilgrimage to his tomb at Medina; regarding him simply as a man charged with a divine mission, which being completed, he became again an ordinary mortal. The story of Mahomet's ascent to Paradise, together with a host of miraculous events related in the life of the prophet, he wholly denied: he equally rejected the indirect worship of certain saints, who had been gradually insinuated into the Mussulman calendar, destroying the chapels and tombs consecrated to them. He prohibited not only the use of opium and tobacco, but that of silk and the precious metals, and ordained that their religious services should be performed underneath the open sky, rather than below the roofing of a mosque.

24. The grand doctrine of this sect, and what they regard as the basis of true Islamism, is the unity of God: this forms their cry when they go to war, and justifies to themselves the violences they commit upon the corrupters of the faith. While forbidden to make some pilgrimages, others are permitted to them; they kiss the stone of the Kaaba, drink of the water of Zemzem, and throw stones against the pillar said to have been built by the devil at Mina. Notwithstanding these changes, however, and the general spirit of their doctrine, they still retain many superstitions common to all Mussulmans: their creed in general may be regarded as a reformed Mahometanism, stripped of many of those things which strike the senses, and to which, owing to the rude ignorance of the Arabs, the impostor of Mecca owed much of his success. The Shekhs, who first joined Abd-ul-Wehhab, had been previously in a state of hostility against one another, but they became reconciled by his mediation, and agreed for the future to undertake no enterprize without the advice of their new teacher. They were by degrees joined by many others, and became at last a very formidable body, assuming the name of Wehhabis or Wahabees, after that of the founder of their sect, and established the great seat of their power at Deriah, in the very heart of Arabia. They made themselves masters of the whole interior part of the country, and exacted a tribute for the purpose of carrying on war against the infidels: they obtained possession of Mecca and Medina, and extended their military excursions as far as the vicinity of Bagdad. The conquest of all Arabia was at last nearly completed, and the prince of the Wahabees became a very formidable neighbour to the surrounding pachas of Egypt, Damascus, and Bagdad. The first of these governors, however, at the commencement of the present century sent a strong army against them, in order to liberate the holy city and shrine from the power of these heretics, as well as to gain favour with the Sublime Porte, and reputation among all true Mussulmans. He succeeded in retaking Mecca, Medina, and Jiddah, but his victory was far from being complete, as were its consequences from being permanent; and though the Wahabees retired for a time from the coast to their desert recesses in the interior of Arabia, they resumed degrees their boldness and authority.

25. Arabia is usually divided into three principal provinces, the limits of which, however, can not be defined

These divisions are Arabia Petraea or *the Stony*, Arabia Felix or *the Happy*, and Arabia Deserta or *the Desert*. Arabia Petraea, so called from its rocky nature, is the most Northern of these, being bounded by Syria, Egypt, and the Northern part of the Red Sea: Arabia Felix, so named from its many valuable productions, lies farther Southward in the S. W. part of the peninsula, being washed by the lower part of the Red Sea, by the Sea of Bab-el-Mandeb, and by a portion of the Indian Ocean: Arabia Deserta has obtained its name from its excessive sterility, and occupies the whole Eastern part of the country, from the frontiers of Syria and Persia to the Indian Ocean.

26. The civil divisions of the country, said to be ten in number, are but little better defined than the preceding: their names and chief towns, as well as the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

Great Divisions.	Modern Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population.
Arabia Petraea	Suez - - -	Akaba - -	3,000
Arabia Felix	Hedjas Proper - -	Medina - -	6,000
	Mecca - - -	Mecca - -	18,000
	Yemen - - -	Sana - -	50,000
	Hadramaut - -	Mareb - -	2,000
	Seger - - -	Doan - -	6,000
Arabia Deserta	Mahrah - - -	Hasec - -	2,000
	Oman - - -	Muscat - -	12,000
	Lahsa - - -	Lahsa, or Ul Ahsa -	8,000
	Nedsjed - - -	Deriah - -	15,000

27. Akaba, or Kalaat-el-Accaba, stands at the head of the G. of Akaba, which is the North Eastern arm of the Red Sea: it occupies the site of the ancient Ailath, and is now rather a strong fort in the occupation of the Pacha of Egypt, but the garrison pay him little respect, as they generally take part with the Arabs. Medina lies in the midst of a fertile country, about 80 miles from the Red Sea, and on the banks of a little rivulet called the Wadi el Akik. It is surrounded by a slight wall, most of the houses are meanly built, and the place is of no importance except from its containing the sepulchre of Mahomet: its population amounts to about

6,000 inhabitants. The port of Medina is Iambo or Yambo on the Red Sea.

28. The tomb of Mahomet is not superior to those usually erected by the founders of mosques to perpetuate their own memory, and is placed between two others containing the remains of the first califs Aboubeker and Omar. It once possessed an immense treasure of pearls, precious stones, &c., accumulated during a series of ages by the contributions of rich Mussulmans; but they were carried off some years ago by the Wahabees, during one of their predatory excursions into this part of the country. These treasures were constantly guarded by forty eunuchs, whose chief duty, however, now consists in keeping off such of the populace as attempt to carry away relics from the place. The building enclosing the tomb is adorned with beautiful silk hangings, which are renewed every seven years. The mosque founded by the prophet is said to be very magnificent; it is supported by four hundred columns, and contains three hundred lamps, which are kept continually burning.

29. About 200 miles to the S. of Medina lies the city of Mecca, nearly midway between Suez and the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, and at a distance of 40 miles from the Red Sea: it is styled by the Mussulmans Omm-Alcora, *Mother of Cities*, from its having been the birth-place of Mahomet. It is situated in a narrow valley enclosed by mountains, and in the midst of a dry, barren, rocky country: the water is brackish, and every thing unfavourable to the support of a large population, though the number of its inhabitants is said to have amounted to upwards of 100,000 souls, or more than ten times as many as it at present contains. The city is about five miles in circuit; the streets are regular and rather handsome, though many of them are now mere heaps of ruins; and of the houses that remain more than two-thirds are unoccupied. Mecca is a city of the greatest celebrity amongst "the faithful;" it contains the three holiest things in the Mahometan world: *well Zemzem*; the *Kaaba*, or house of God; and the *Black Stone*.

30. Zemzem is believed by the followers of Mahomet to be the issue of a spring which gushed forth in the wilderness for the relief of Hagar and her son Ishmael; and wonderful efficacy is ascribed to its water, in giving health to the sick, imparting strength of memory, and purifying from the effects of sin. The Kaaba is of great antiquity, and is supposed to have existed, in its present form, above 700 years before the birth of Mahomet. It was at first a kind of pantheon, devoted by the Arabs to the worship of 360 idols; but now a spacious portico, or piazza, adorned with cupolas and minarets, the centre of the area stands the most highly venerated part of the building, which is the Kaaba, properly so called, and is a quadrilateral tower of

equal sides, covered with a black cloth, which is annually renewed by the Turkish sultan. According to the Mahometan legend this temple was built by Abraham; but the stones were contributed by every mountain in the world, and came ready fitted for the place they were to occupy. The Black Stone, the principal wonder of the place, and now generally thought to be a meteoric stone, is said to have been brought by the angel Gabriel to form the foundation of the edifice, and to have been originally of a dazzling whiteness, though its colour has since changed to black. The grand ceremony, through which the pilgrims pass, is that of going seven times round the Kaaba, repeating certain verses or psalms in honour of the prophet, and kissing the sacred stone each time. Mecca is entirely supported by pilgrims from every part of the Mahometan world; but their number is now much smaller than formerly, owing partly to the decay of religious zeal, and the gradual decline of the power and wealth of the Mahometan States; and partly to the dread of the Wahabees. No Christian is allowed to enter Mecca, and its territory is regarded as sacred to a certain distance round the city, which is indicated by marks set up as a warning. The whole country in the neighbourhood of Mecca and Medina is sometimes called Hed-el-Haram, or the holy land of the Mahometans.

31. Sana, the capital of Yemen and the residence of the Imam, is situated in the South Western corner of Arabia, about 90 miles from the shores of the Red Sea, and is probably the most populous place in the whole country, the number of its inhabitants being said to amount to 50,000: it is surrounded by a strong mud wall, and, owing to the number of its fine edifices and the regularity with which it is built, it is reckoned one of the handsomest cities of Asia. To the S. W. of it, about 50 miles from the Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb, stands Mocha, the principal port on the Red Sea, and the channel through which almost all the intercourse of Europe with the East is carried on. It is famous for its coffee, which is its chief article of export and is of unrivalled excellence: its population is estimated at about 100,000 souls.

Mocha was founded about four centuries ago, in a most dreary situation in a plain bounded by mountains consisting entirely of arid sand. The climate is intensely hot, owing to a South-Eastern wind blowing for several months in the year from over the burning sands of Africa. The town has a handsome appearance from the sea, but on entering it the streets are found to be dirty, the houses meanly built, and many of them decayed. It is enclosed by a wall, 16 feet high on the sea-side, and more than 30 feet on the land.

On the Southern coast of Arabia there are many considerable towns; such as Aden, Hargiah, Kesseen, Doan, and Hasec; but little is known concerning them. Muscat, or Mascat, on the Eastern coast at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, is the capital of Oman, and the residence of the Imam: it is a place of considerable strength, being walled round and

well fortified, and possesses an excellent harbour formed by the mainland and the island of Muscat. The government of Oman is said to be more civilized and orderly than any other either in Arabia or Persia, though the people were formerly much dreaded on account of their piratical disposition. Muscat is the great rendezvous of all ships trading between Hindoostan and the ports of the Persian Gulf: it is said to contain 12,000 inhabitants. One of the chief places on the Arabian side of the Persian Gulf is El-Katif, situated near the centre, and not far from the mouth of the R. Aftan. Some distance up this river stands Ul Ahsa, and towards its source is Iemama, both of which are the capitals of the districts respectively so called. To the N. of the latter lies Deriah, the capital of the Wahabees, and a town of considerable strength and consequence; it is nearly in the centre of the whole country, and its situation, in the midst of deserts, renders it a convenient place of refuge and legislation for the powerful sect to which it belongs.

CHAPTER XIX.

KINGDOM OF PERSIA.

1. THE kingdom of Persia is bounded on the W. by the Ottoman Empire and Arabia, on the S. by the Gulf of Persia, on the E. by Cabul and Baloochistan, and on the N. by Independent Tartary, the Caspian Sea, and the Russian Empire. The name of Persia, however, is frequently applied to the whole country from the R. Indus to the mountain-range of Zagros or Aiagha Dag, and even as far Westward as the Tigris; but the limits of the *kingdom* of Persia have fluctuated exceedingly, according to the vicissitudes of conquest and revolution, and are therefore variously defined at different periods of its history. The Kingdom of Persia is called Iran by the natives, Shahestan by the Arabs, and Ajem-eslam by the Armenians. It contains 433,200 square miles, and its estimated population is about 15,000,000 of souls.

2. PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS. There are two great ranges of mountains in Persia, one in the Northern and the other in the Southern part of the country, which are both connected by a third range on the frontiers of India. The Northern range is a continuation of the Anti-Taurus and Niphates in Asia Minor, which traverses the pro-

vinces of Azerbaijan, and skirts the Southern shores of the Caspian Sea, where it is known as the M^s. of Elburz. It intersects the provinces of Ghilan and Mazanderan; then trends farther Eastward through the N. part of Khorasan under the name of Paropamisus; and finally joins the Hindoo Coosh or Indian Caucasus, which is the Western termination of the Himaleh Mountains in India.

3. The Southern range of mountains is a continuation of Mt. Zagros or Aiagha Dag, which forms the boundary between Persia and the Ottoman Empire; upon its entrance into Persia it is called the M^s. of Louristan. It passes to the S.E. through the provinces of Fars and Kerman, till it joins the Wushutee and Sarawanee M^s. in Baloochistan. The range of mountains which connects the two preceding, runs parallel with the R. Indus, and on its Western side: the whole range is in a general way named Brahooick, and terminates in C. Monze, on the shores of the Indian Ocean.

4. PRINCIPAL RIVERS. Though many parts of Persia are exceedingly fertile, it is in general a desert and arid country; it is surrounded by great rivers, but has only a few of any consequence which really belong to it. The Euphrates and Tigris, to the West of Persia, are sometimes, though improperly, reckoned to it; they have been already described. The R. Kur, which was once within the Northern limits of Persia, is now wholly in Russia: it rises in the Anti-Taurus on the frontiers of Asia Minor, Armenia, and Georgia, and after traversing the last mentioned province enters the Caspian Sea to the S. of Baku; its length is 550 miles, and its course South East. The R. Aras, or Araxes as it is sometimes called, likewise rises in the Anti-Taurus close to the Northern source of the Euphrates and not far from the springs of the Kur: it flows Eastward with a circuitous course of nearly 600 miles, past the foot of Mt. Ararat into the Kur near the shores of the Caspian Sea.

5. The R. Kizil-Ozen or Sufeed rises in the range of Aiagha-Dag, whence it flows with a N. E. course of 350 miles into the Caspian Sea near the town of Reshd. Below it, in the S. part of the province of Irak, are the

Kerah, Karoon, and Jerake, which are all three tributaries of the Tigris. Farther S. are the Endian, the Nabon, and the Div, which flow into the G. of Persia; and above these in the province of Fars, is the R. Bend-Emir, which loses itself in the L. of Baktegaun and never reaches the Sea. The Suroo, Nugor, and Dustee or Bhugwur, are the only Persian rivers of any consequence which discharge their waters into the Indian Ocean.

6. The rivers Goorgaun and Attruck are in the N. part of Persia, close on the borders of Independent Tartary; they both flow Westward into the Caspian Sea near Astrabad. To the E. of these near the common limits of Persia, Cabul, and Tartary, is the R. Murghab with its tributary the Heri; it rises on the N. side of the Hindoo-Coosh, and flows Northward into a little lake on the borders of Tartary. The R. Heermund is farther to the Southward, in the kingdom of Cabul; it rises on the S. side of the Hindoo-Coosh near the city Cabul, and flows thence with a S. W. course of 700 miles into the L. of Zarrah.

7. SEAS, CAPES, &c. The Caspian Sea washes the N. W. part of Persia, on the coast of which it forms the L. of Enzellee and the B. of Astrabad. The Gulf of Persia bounds the S. W. shores of the Kingdom from which it has derived its name, and communicates with the Indian Ocean by the St. of Bumbarack: the chief inlets of it on the coast of Persia are the Bays of Busheer and Nabon, and the G. of Ormuz. That part of the Indian Ocean which washes the S. shores of Persia is called the Arabian Sea, or otherwise the Sea of Oman from the district of Oman in Arabia Deserta: the name is applied in a general way to the whole sea between Arabia, Persia, and India. The only large inlet of it on the Persian coast is Sonmeany Bay near the frontiers of India. There are three principal inland lakes in Persia, viz. L. Shahee or Ouroomia in the province of Azerbaijan; L. Baktegaun in Fars; and the L. of Zarrah in Cabul. The chief capes of Persia are, Rohilla Pt., Busheer Pt., C. Kenn, C. Nabon, and C. Sertis, in the Gulf of Persia; and C. Bumbarack, C. Jask, C. Guadel, C. Arubah, and C. Monze, in the Sea of Oman.

8. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The Persians, properly so called, are Mahometans of the sect of Ali, for which reason they are regarded as heretics by the Turks, who belong to the sect of Omar: they are personally far more neglectful of religious duties than either *the Turks or Arabs*, but their bigotry and intolerance are *not surpassed* by any Mahometan people. The unfortu-

rate race of the Guebres, Parsees, or Worshippers of fire, is now almost entirely extirpated; a few solitary bands of them are still to be met with in Kerman, in the Southern part of Khorasan, and in some parts of the other provinces, but they are relentlessly persecuted by the present rulers of Persia, from their connecting with their faith an attachment to its ancient laws and political system. The government of Persia is an absolute monarchy, which often degenerates into the most barbarous despotism. The King, or *Shah* as he is called, is considered to be the vicegerent of the prophet, and is therefore entitled to the most implicit obedience: both the land and its inhabitants, from the highest to the lowest, are regarded as his absolute property.

9. A freethinking and irreligious spirit reigns to a considerable extent in Persia, among several classes of society; these enthusiasts are commonly called *sooffees* or *dervishes**, and have not only much increased in number of late years, but have mainly contributed to the increase of scepticism which is complained of by the orthodox in that country. It is difficult to describe the objects which inspire Sooffees, for their opinions and sects are infinitely varied, though they all partake more of enthusiasm than fanaticism. The objects which inspire them are said to relate to the abstract study of the nature both of God and man, unconnected with any religion but that of nature; and the enthusiast often becomes so wrapt in these sublime speculations, that reason gives way under a task to which she is so unequal, and his meditations are changed to visions of the most incoherent wildness, or the frantic gestures of the most deplorable insanity.

10. The appellation Guebres, Ghebres, Gueores, Gaures, or Giaours, as it is variously written, denotes Heathens or people of a false religion; the Turks generally use it to distinguish any thing not Mahometan, applying

* *Sooffees*, *Sophis*, or *Sofees*, denote a kind of order of religious persons amongst the Mahometans in Persia, answering to what are otherwise called *Dervishes*, and amongst the Indians and Arabs, *Fakirs*. The more eminent amongst them are complimented with the title *Shekh*, i. e. Reverend; and such persons, amongst the Turks, pretend to be the legitimate successors of Mahomet. Ishmael, who conquered Persia, was a *Sophi*, and greatly valued himself on being so: he chose all the guards of his person from among the religious of this order, and would have all the great lords of his court *Sophis*. The king of Persia is still grand-master of the order, though it is now fallen into some contempt: the vulgar *sophis* are now chiefly employed in the lower occupations of life, and as menial attendants of the court. This neglect, into which the order is sunk, occasioned the late emperor to drop the title of *Sophi*, and even to refuse allowing some of the order, according to custom, to gird on his sword. The name of *Sophi* or *Sooffee* is now generally applied in Persia to those freethinkers in religious matters, who choose to depart from the prescribed doctrines, forms, and traditions of the followers of Mahomet.

it in the same way that the Christians do Pagan or Infidel. In Persia the term has a more peculiar and limited signification; it being there applied to a sect dispersed through a few provinces of the country, and said to be the remains of the ancient Persians, or followers of Zoroaster, being worshippers of fire. The Guebres entertain the most profound veneration for this ancient philosopher, whom they consider as the great prophet sent by God to communicate his law, and to instruct them in his will. They profess to believe a resurrection and a future judgment, and to worship only one God. And though they perform their worship before fire, and direct their devotion towards the rising Sun, for which they have an extraordinary veneration, yet they strenuously maintain that they worship neither; but that those are the most expressive symbols of the Deity, and for this reason they turn towards them in their devotional services. Some have supposed that these Guebres are Persians converted to Christianity, who, being afterwards left to themselves, mingled their ancient superstitions with the truths and practices of Christianity, and so formed for themselves a religion apart: and such persons allege, that throughout the whole of their doctrine and practice, the marks and traces of Christianity, though grievously defaced, may still be discerned.

11. Several of the Guebres fled many ages ago into India, and settled about Surat, where their posterity remain to this day: there is also a colony of them at Bombay. They are a poor, ignorant, inoffensive people, extremely superstitious, and zealous for their rites, rigorous in their morals, and honest in their dealings. One of the great objects of their religious worship is the everlasting fire near Baku, in the Russian province of Shirvan, on the Western shores of the Caspian Sea. The ground there is rocky, and over it is a shallow covering of earth: if a little of the surface be scraped off, and fire be applied to the hollow, it catches flame immediately, and burns without intermission, and almost without consumption; nor is it ever extinguished unless some cold earth be thrown over it, by which it is easily put out. Some of the spots of ground, which have been thus ignited, are very large, and are said in the traditions of the place to have been burning many thousand years. The flame yielded by this fire has neither smoke nor smell. This sacred and adored phenomenon is nothing more than an inflammable vapour, which issues in great quantity out of the ground in this place, and is supplied by the naphtha, with which the adjacent country abounds.

12. The choice of the king of Persia's servants rests solely with himself; he may exalt or degrade them, fine, imprison, maim or put them to death, without being in any way answerable for such act; and the exercise of this power is only limited by the degree of security he feels on his throne, and the danger there may be at the time, in provoking the people or individuals by acts of injustice and cruelty. The wandering tribes, however, are ruled by their own *khans*, who carry on all the internal administration, and merely pay military service when required; and in consequence of their having at their disposal so large a proportion of the warlike population, they are always courted even by the most powerful monarch.

13. Persia is composed at present of seven great provinces, viz. Azerbijan, Ghilan, Mazanderan, and Irak-Ajemi, in the West; and Khorasan, Fars, and Kerman in the East.

The chief towns of these provinces together with their estimated populations, may be seen in the following table :

Provinces.	Chief Cities.	Estimated Population.
Tabriz - - - -	Tabriz - - - -	100,000
Reshd - - - -	Reshd - - - -	70,000
Saree - - - -	Saree - - - -	35,000
Teheran - - - -	Teheran - - - -	150,000
Mushed - - - -	Mushed - - - -	35,000
Shiraz - - - -	Shiraz - - - -	40,000
Kerman - - - -	Kerman - - - -	30,000

The province of Mekran is sometimes reckoned to Persia, but it is ruled by a number of independent chiefs, whose power is constantly varying with the extent of their territory. A few of them occasionally presents to the king of Persia by way of tribute ; but its inhabitants, lately, render more obedience to the Balooches, after whom the Northern inland part of their province has obtained the name of Baloochistan.

About the middle of the seventh century Persia became annexed to the empire of the Califs, who extended their dominion beyond the limits of Persia into Independent Tartary. After having maintained possession of this newly-acquired territory for nearly six centuries, they lost it by a reaction, which proceeded from the last-mentioned quarter ; and successive invasions by the descendants of Genghiz, Timur, and the Turkish hordes, completely changed the political aspect of Western Persia. Persia was the great arena on which the Saracens disputed for mastery and dominion with these Northern invaders ; and during this great struggle it suffered every misery to which a nation can be exposed, from the most atrocious cruelties of barbarous and sanguinary hordes. In the beginning of the 10th century, however, a native dynasty arose in the person of the Sassanid Sophi, who wrested the kingdom out of the hands of those foreign rulers, by whom it had been so long enslaved : he was followed by Abbas, who completed the emancipation of his country, and extended its limits on every side.

The reign of this later prince formed the most brilliant era in the history of Persia ; but his posterity having sunk into voluptuousness, the country was completely overrun in the beginning of the last century by the Afghans. These savage robbers, having been transplanted by Tamerlane from the neighbourhood of Mt. Caucasus and the Caspian Sea to the Indus and the Indian frontiers of Persia, revolted, and carried the desolation of fire and sword through the remotest provinces of this unhappy country, and reduced many of its proudest cities to ruins. Their atrocities were amply avenged by Nadir Shah, and the independence of Persia was more completely completed : but, upon the assassination of this daring chief, it became the scene of a furious civil war, during which the Afghans were enabled to reduce the whole Eastern part of the country under their dominion, and to establish a new empire which continues to the present day.

8. Teheran, the present metropolis of the Kingdom of Persia, and the capital of the province of Irak-Ajemi, Irak as it is sometimes simply called, is situated in

the Northern part of the province and of the whole country: it stands close to the ruins of the ancient city Rhagæ now called Rha, at the foot of the lofty mountain-range Elburz, and only 60 miles distant from the shores of the Caspian Sea. It is about four miles in circumference, being surrounded by a wall and otherwise fortified; but notwithstanding this, it is a place of very little strength. During the two last reigns it has been the residence of the sovereign, and the seat of government, and hence it has been considerably enlarged and adorned, so that it has partly the appearance of a new city. Its population is estimated at 150,000 souls.

19. The only edifice of any importance in Teheran is the *ark*, as it is called, which combines the character of citadel and palace: as a fortress, however, its capabilities of defence are very trifling, and its splendour as a palace is still more questionable. The houses in general are built of unburnt brick, and give the whole city a dingy and mud-like appearance. During the summer months, it is exceedingly unhealthy, and in that season the king pitches his tent in the plains of Sultanieh or Zunjan, whither he is followed by most of the inhabitants of Teheran. But notwithstanding its disadvantages, this city has been chosen by the Persian monarchs as their residence, owing to its proximity to the Russian frontier, now their most vulnerable quarter, and on account of its being situated in the midst of those warlike wandering tribes, upon whom the strength of the Persian army chiefly depends. Reshd, the capital of Ghilan, is situated only a mile or two from an arm of the Caspian Sea, called the L. of Enzellee: it is one of the most flourishing places in all Persia, and, from its proximity to the Caspian Sea, carries on an active trade with all the neighbouring countries, for the productions of which it has become the great depôt in this part of the kingdom.

20. Tabriz, Tavriz, or Tauris, as it is variously called, stands in the centre of the province of Azerbijan, of which it is the capital; it is situated in the midst of a great plain, on the banks of the little R. Agi, which runs into the L. Shahee or Ouroomia, about 25 miles below the city. According to the Persian tradition, it was founded by Zobeida, one of the wives of Haroun-al-Raschid; however this may be, it was a favourite residence of that celebrated chief, and was indebted to him for the extraordinary magnitude and splendour which it once exhibited. It is said to have formerly contained more than 500,000 inhabitants, and carried on a most extensive commerce with India, Russia, Tartary, and many of the Asiatic countries. But, owing to its situation near the frontiers of contending empires, it has been alternately the object of conquest to Turks, Tartars, and Persians, and has been taken and pillaged eight different times: besides this, it has repeatedly suffered from the shocks of terrible earthquakes, one of which, about a century ago, is stated to have destroyed upwards of 100,000 persons. It is now, therefore, one of the most wretched cities in the kingdom; the walls that surround it are decayed, and it scarcely contains an edifice of the least pretensions to grandeur: the ruins of the ancient buildings cover a great extent of ground, but, far from adding anything to the beauty or interest of the place, present nothing but a confused heap of rubbish and crumbling mud walls.

21. Ispahan, the old capital of Persia, is situated in the South Eastern corner of the province of Irak, on the banks of the little R. Zynder, which loses itself in the sand. Owing to its situation in the centre of the empire and of a very fertile country, it became at an early period a place of great population, wealth, and trade, and was chosen by the califs of Bagdad as the capital of the province of Irak: its walls were at one time twenty miles in circuit, and its population amounted to more than 600,000 souls. But in the midst of its prosperity it was taken, A. D. 1387, by Timur, who gave it up to an indiscriminate massacre, in which 70,000 citizens are said to have perished.

22. Ispahan recovered from this desolation owing to its admirable situation, and was chosen as the seat of his dominion by the famous Shah Abbas, who spared no cost in embellishing it with the most splendid edifices. The great palace which he built here was nearly four miles in circuit, but a great part of this space was laid out in gardens, ten in number, adorned with summer-houses and other elegant structures. Ispahan was taken by the Afghans in 1722, when many of its superb edifices were entirely destroyed; but Nadir Shah retook it five years afterwards, and endeavoured to restore it to its former greatness. Since that time it has ceased to be a royal residence, owing to the rising importance of Teheran, and has therefore gradually decayed: it now presents only the wreck of what it once was, by far the greater part of its surface being covered with ruins. Its present population is estimated at 150,000 souls, so that if it be not the most populous place in the whole Persian Empire, it is at least the second in rank: it is said to be gradually reviving from the neglect into which it has been latterly thrown, partly from the efforts of the inhabitants to improve their condition, and partly from the situation of the city rendering it the great emporium of all the inland commerce of Persia.

23. Shiraz, the capital of Fars, is situated in the middle of the province, on an elevated plain of almost unrivalled beauty and fertility, the boast of the whole country: it is the third city in Persia, and has been at several periods the metropolis of the whole empire. The city is about five miles in circuit, and is surrounded by walls, which, owing to the indolence of the governors, have been suffered to fall to ruin. The magnificence of Shiraz consists solely in a few public buildings, the houses, in general, presenting an exceedingly mean and paltry appearance: the great mosque is in high repute as one of the strongest holds of Mahometanism in the East. Hafiz, the Anacreon of Persia, was a native of Shiraz, and composed most of his productions amidst its delightful retreats; he was buried in a garden near the city, where an elegant tomb has been raised to him by one of the khans.

24. To the W. of Shiraz, upon the shores of the Persian Gulf, stands Basheer, the principal sea-port of the kingdom: it is situated on a peninsula, surrounded on three sides by water, and fortified towards the land by a wall mounting a few pieces of cannon. The town presents a handsome appearance at a distance, but the streets are narrow and meanly built. It

owes all its importance to its maritime situation, which causes it to be the great depôt for most of the commerce which is carried on between India and Persia: the English East India Company have a factory here, and the resident possesses considerable influence in the town. Busheer is estimated to contain about 8,000 inhabitants; it is governed by an Arab shekh, who is tributary to the king of Persia.

25. Gamberoon, or Bender Abbas as it is also called, is likewise situated on the shores of that part of the Persian Gulf which is called the Gulf of Ormuz, from the famous little island of Ormuz lying in it. It stands in the South Eastern corner of Kerman, close on the borders of Fars, and was formerly the most extensive and flourishing place on the whole gulf, having been the great sea-port of all Southern Persia: but the troubles and various casualties of this ill-governed country have reduced it to a low condition, and it is now a mean place, comparatively of but little consequence. It still, however, carries on a tolerable trade, and is fortified with a double wall; it is subject to the Imam of Muscat, who accounts to the king of Persia for the tribute of it and a few neighbouring places: it is said to contain about 4,000 inhabitants. Kerman, the capital of the province of the same name, is sometimes called Sirjian, and was formerly one of the most beautiful and flourishing cities of the Persian Empire; but it has been so often plundered by barbarous enemies, and desolated by domestic and foreign wars, that it is now a deserted and ruinous place, covering but a small portion of the space enclosed within its fortifications.

26. Mushed or Meshid, the capital of Khorasan, stands in the North Eastern corner of the province, towards the frontiers of Independent Tartary: it is situated on a little river of the same name, which runs into the Heri Rood, and after joining the Murghab, becomes lost in the Sandy Desert. It is surrounded by a strong wall nearly six miles in circumference, and is considered throughout Persia as a holy city, owing to its containing a very splendid sepulchre, in which the ashes of the Imam Reza and of the Calif Haroun-al-Raschid are said to repose. It is by far the most important city in the Eastern part of Persia, and is resorted to by caravans from all parts of the country, as well as from Bokhara, Balkh, Kandahar, and Hindoostan. To the West of Mushed, about forty miles distant, is Neshapore, formerly one of the royal cities of Khorasan, and for a long time the seat of the Seljukian Dynasty, the founder of which was crowned here. It attained to an extraordinary degree of splendour and magnificence, but it was so completely destroyed by the Moguls during the irruption of Genghiz Khan, that it is said a horse might have been ridden over the whole site without stumbling. The situation was, however, so favourable that the city was soon rebuilt, though it has never recovered its former importance: it is surrounded by a wall, about four miles in circuit, and is estimated to contain nearly 10,000 inhabitants. In the range of hills to the N. W. of Neshapore are the famous Turquoise mines, which alone have furnished the world, from a very remote period, with one of its highly valuable gems.

KINGDOM OF CABUL OR AFGHANISTAN.

27. The Kingdom of Cabul, called Afghanistan from its principal people, and sometimes Kandahar from one of its chief provinces, is bounded on the W. by Persia, on the N. by Independent and Chinese Tartary, on the

East by Hindoostan, and on the South by the Bahr Oman or Arabian Sea. It not only includes the Eastern part of Persia, but extends some distance to the Eastward of the Indus, into the country commonly distinguished as India. It comprehends, together with Baloochistan, about 428,600 square miles, or nearly the same as the kingdom of Persia, and its population is estimated at 15,000,000 inhabitants.

28. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The Afghans themselves are all Mahometans of the Sonnite sect. The government is an assemblage of many commonwealths, the whole or nearly the whole of which is formed into one state by the supreme authority of a common sovereign. The king, who is the natural head of his own tribe, possesses likewise a paramount authority over the other tribes: this authority extends to a general superintendence over the whole kingdom, and to levying fixed proportions of troops and money from each tribe for the common defence. The crown is hereditary, but there is no established law as to primogeniture, the succession being decided by the aristocracy.

29. Towards people of a religion entirely different from their own the Afghans are very tolerant, as long as they are at peace with them, though, like all other Mussulmans, they hold that it is not only lawful but meritorious to make war upon unbelievers; but the difference in religious opinions between them and the Persians, though not sufficient to affect any serious part of their conduct, is enough to create a most bitter enmity between the two sects. The Hindoos are allowed the free exercise of their religion, and their temples are entirely unmolested. The whole kingdom of Cabul is seldom animated by one spirit, the individual interests of each tribe attracting more attention than the general welfare of the State. In consequence of this, there is some distinction of interests between the king and the nation, and a still greater difference of opinion regarding his legal powers; the king and his nobles maintaining that he has all the power of an Asiatic despot, and the people in general considering him as a monarch with very limited prerogatives: this produces a good deal of diversity in the actual exercise of the royal authority.

30. The Afghans are supposed to have derived their name and origin from the Scythian Alani. The appellation is known to the people themselves only through the medium of the Persian language, their own name for their nation being Poooshtoon or Pookhtaneh, whence that of Pitani by which they are distinguished in India: the Arabs call them Solimanees. In the beginning of the 18th century, the Afghan tribe of Ghilzie founded an empire, which included all Persia, and extended on the West to the present limits of the Russian and Turkish empires: only part of Afghanistan, however, acknowledged their dominion. Nadir Shah overthrew this dynasty, and annexed most of Afghanistan to Persia: on his death, the present Afghan

monarchy was founded, which at its height extended from the neighbourhood of the Caspian Sea to that of the R. Jumna, and from the R. Jihon or Oxus to the Indian Ocean.

31. The whole kingdom of Cabul is divided into twenty-seven provinces or districts, exclusive of Baloo-chistan, the chief of which country is, except in name, rather a party in unequal alliance than a subject. Amongst the most important of these provinces may be mentioned Herat, Kandahar, Cabul, Peshawur, Scind, Cashmere, and Moultan.

32. Eighteen of the most important of these provinces are placed each under the superintendence of a governor, who commands the militia and collects the revenue, but is removable at the pleasure of the king: his authority is enforced and maintained by the heads of the various tribes, whose importance is greater or less in proportion to the degree of subjection in which the district is held. The 18 provinces where these governors reside are named generally after their chief towns, and are,

Herat.	Jellallabad.	Sewee.
Furrah.	Lughman.	Scind.
Kandahar.	Peshawur.	Cashmere.
Ghizni.	Dera Ismael Khan.	Chuck Hazareh.
Cabul.	Dera Ghazi Khan.	Lyah.
Bamian and Ghorebund.	Shikarpoor.	Moultan.

The other nine divisions are generally composed of countries belonging to Afghan tribes, and, from their including more unsettled parts of the country, are frequently falling off from the royal authority.

33. Cabul, the present capital of Afghanistan, and usually the residence of the sovereign, is situated in the Northern part of the kingdom, on the banks of a river of the same name which finally joins the Indus: it is surrounded by a brick wall, and is a very ancient and beautiful city. From early antiquity it was considered as the gate of Hindoostan towards Tartary, whilst Kandahar held the same rank towards the frontiers of Persia. The city of Cabul is compact, but by no means extensive, and has in its vicinity many groves and gardens: most of the houses are of wood, on account of the frequency of earthquakes. It is a considerable emporium of trade, owing to its being the ordinary seat of government: the population is said to amount to about 50,000 souls.

34. To the Eastward of Cabul lies the city of Peshawur, which stands on very uneven ground near the junction of the Cabul R. with the Indus.

at the foot of the Kheiber range of mountains; it is about four miles in extent and contains some splendid palaces, one of which is occasionally visited by the king. The inhabitants, who are mostly of Indian origin, have been estimated at 100,000. The city of Kandahar, formerly the metropolis of Afghanistan, is situated on the banks of the R. Urgandah, which is a tributary of the Heermund: it is surrounded by walls and ditches, and owing to its lying in the road from Ispahan to Delhi, it is still a place of considerable importance. It is about three miles in circuit, and is on the site of a very handsome city: its present population amounts to about 100,000 souls. Kelat, the capital of Baloochistan, and the residence of the British Resident, stands in the North Eastern corner of the country, on an elevated position, 3,000 feet above the level of the sea: it contains about 20,000 inhabitants, composed of Balooches, Hindoos, and Afghans.

4. The city of Cashmere, the capital of the province of the same name, was formerly called Serinagur; it lies in the North Eastern part of Afghanistan, within the limits of India, near the source of the R. Jhyllum or Jhelum, and at the foot of the snowy range of Himaleh. It is about six miles in circuit, and contains about 180,000 inhabitants, being reckoned the largest and most populous city in the Afghan dominions. It is celebrated for the manufacture of shawls, the beauty and delicacy of which are unrivalled; they are made from the wool of a kind of goat, which is only to be met with in the country.

5. The lake of Cashmere, named in the provincial language the Dall, has long been celebrated for its beauties: it is studded with a number of small islands, and extends from the North Eastern quarter of the city in a circular circumference of about six miles: it joins the R. Jhyllum which is a tributary of the Indus. The climate of the country is delightful, and its fertility proverbially great; the whole province has been styled by the British the terrestrial paradise of India. Cashmere has lately thrown off the Afghan yoke, and asserted its independence, as have also some of the other cities and districts to the Eastward of the Indus.

CHAPTER XX.

INDIA OR HINDOOSTAN.

1. INDIA or Hindoostan is bounded on the W. by the Arabian Sea, on the N. by Tibet, on the E. by the Birman Empire, and on the S. by the Ocean.

It contains, including Bhotan, Assam, and Ceylon, 997,300 square miles, and an estimated population of 136,500,000 souls: of these, 959,200 square miles belong to the British, or are under their protection, including a population of about 123,000,000 souls. The name of India, however, is frequently extended as far Westward as the R. Indus, and thus made to include several of those provinces which have been mentioned in the preceding chapter as forming part of the dominions of the Afghans. Indeed, in its most extended sense, India is considered as comprehending not only the country confined within these limits [and which, for distinction's sake, is sometimes called India Proper or India *on this side* the Ganges], but also the Birman Empire, Siam, Malacca, Cambodia, Cochin China, Tonkin, &c. all which last are unitedly distinguished as the Farther India or India *beyond* the Ganges.

2. It is difficult to discover any name applied by the Brahmins to the country over which their doctrines have prevailed, as they generally describe it by a circumlocution. Sometimes they give it the epithet Medhyama, or *central*, from its occupying the centre of the back of the tortoise which is said in their mythology to support the world: they also call it Punyabhumi, or *land of virtue*; and Bharat Khand, after Bharat, one of nine brothers, whose portion they represent it to have been, and whose father ruled the whole earth. The modern name of Hindoostan is a Persian appellation, derived from the words Hindoo *black*, and stan *place*, but it has been adopted for ages back, both by natives and foreigners. By the Mahometan writers the term Hindoostan is understood to signify the territory which was in immediate subjection to the sovereigns of Delhi, *i. e.* those provinces alone which are in the Northern part of the peninsula; this confined sense of the appellation is still used to distinguish the same extent of country, being one of the three great divisions into which all India is often divided. The other two great divisions are the Deccan, which extends from the R. Nerbuddah to the Kistnah, in the central part of the country; and the Carnatic, or Southern region, so named after one of its most important provinces.

3. PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS. The great range of mountains which bounds India on the N. is called Himachal or Himaleh, and its Western part towards Persia the Hindoo-Coosh or Indian Caucasus. It is the loftiest range of mountains in the world, several of its peaks rising to the height of more than 26,000 feet above the level of the sea; from its being covered with perpetual snow it has obtained the name Himaleh, which in the language of the country signifies snowy. The Western

part of India is traversed by another lofty chain of mountains, called the Western Ghauts, which runs southward from the R. Nerbuddah and the G. of Cambay, and terminates in C. Comorin, the Southernmost point of the whole peninsula.

4. To the E. of these Ghauts and S. of the Himaleh, in the centre of India, are three great ridges of mountains dividing the courses of the rivers in that part of the country, and uniting as it were in the Western Ghauts. The Northernmost of these, called the Vindhyas M^s., crosses the country from the R. Ganges to the head of the Gulf of Cutch, and sends out a spur into the Great Desert towards Ajmeer. Below it, and parallel with it, is the range of the Sautpoora M^s., which separates the waters of the rivers Nerbuddah and Tapti; and still lower down are the Sechachull M^s., dividing the course of the Tapti from the Godavery. The range of the Western Ghauts is connected towards the South with another ridge considerably lower than itself, called the Eastern Ghauts from its running through the Eastern part of the peninsula.

5. PRINCIPAL RIVERS. The R. Indus, or Scind as it is also called, rises on the N. side of the Himaleh M^s. in Little Tibet; it assumes first a Northerly and afterwards a Southerly course, breaks through the Himaleh, and traversing the kingdom of Cabul, enters the Indian Ocean by seven mouths: it is 1,700 miles long. The only great tributaries which it receives on its right bank are the rivers Cabul and Arul; the former joins it at Attock, and the latter near Hyderabad. Upon its left bank, however, it receives the waters of five rivers (all larger than the Thames), which rise in the Himaleh M^s., and have caused the country through which they flow to be called Punjab, i. e. the Country of the Five Rivers. The names of these are the Jhyllum (which rises near Cashmere), the Chunaß, the Ravee or river of Lahore, the Gurrah or Beyah, and the Sutlege.

6. To the S. of the Indus are, the Ban, which flows into the marshy inlet called the Rin; the Bunwas which runs into the G. of Cutch; and the Mhye which empties itself into the G. of Cambay. But the two principal

ivers which intersect the Western part of India, and fall into the Indian Ocean, are the Nerbuddah and Taptv: the former of these is much the larger, being 600 miles long, and enters the sea at Baroche; the Taptv joins the ocean near Soorat.

7. There are several important rivers which traverse the E. part of India and run into the B. of Bengal. Of these the Southernmost is the Cauvery, which rises in the Western Ghats and runs past Tanjore into the sea opposite the I. of Ceylon by several mouths. Farther Northward are, the Pennar, which flows into the B. of Bengal above the city of Madras; the Kistnah, which rises in the Western Ghats and, after receiving the tributary streams of the Beema and Toombudra, enters the sea at Masulipatam; the Godavery, which likewise has its source in the Western Ghats, and after being joined by the Manjeera, the Warda, and the Brumunga, enters the sea near the mouth of the Kistnah. Still farther N. are the rivers Mahanuddy, which flows into the B. of Bengal near Kuttack; the Braminy, Subanreeka, and Dummoodah.

8. But by far the most important river of India is the Ganges, which rises on the S. side of the Himaleh M^s near the common limits of Cabul, Tibet, and India properly so called; hence it flows with a S. E. course of 1,650 miles past the towns Allahabad and Patna into the B. of Bengal by several arms, upon one of which, called the Hoogly, stands the city of Calcutta. It receives in its course the waters of many great rivers, as the Jumna, the Chumbul, and the Gogra; and from its importance to the natives they pay it the most superstitious veneration.

9. The junction of the Ganges and Jumna takes place at Allahabad: the Chumbul, Bunass, Betwah, and Keane, are all tributaries of the latter river. Excepting the Jumna, the Sone is the only great river which runs into the S. side of the Ganges. On its N. side it receives the Ramganga, the Goomy, the Gogra, the Gunduck, the Cosah, and the Teestah, which all flow into it from the Himaleh Mountains.

10. The great river Burrampooter or Brahmaputra is supposed to be the same with the Tsanpoo, which rises on the N. side of the Himaleh M^s in Tibet: hence it flows with an easterly, and afterwards with a Westerly

1. Southerly course, into the B. of Bengal close to the mouth of the Ganges. It is nearly 2,000 miles long ; it is thought to communicate with the R. Irrawaddy of the Birman Empire, by means of an elevated lake, at a point where it turns suddenly to the W. and runs through Assam.

11. SEAS, CAPES, &c. The Bay of Bengal lies between India on the W. and the Birman Empire on the East, and is so called after that province of India which bounds its Northern extremity. The I. of Ceylon is separated from the mainland of India by a narrow strait, called Palk's Strait : Palk's lies on the N. side of this strait, and the G. of Manaar, so famous for pearl-fishery, is on its Southern side, both inlets lying between the peninsula and the island. There are two great gulfs on the N. W. shores of India, viz. the G. of Cambay and the G. of Cutch ; the former so named from the town which is situated at its head, and the latter from the province in which it touches. The N. part of the G. of Cutch is connected with the Rin, called otherwise Runn and Bunnee, which is a very extensive salt mass, partly formed by the rivers running into it, and partly by the ocean. Though India possesses such a long line of coast it has no very remarkable port, if we except C. Comorin, its Southern extremity. On its W. shores we may, however, mention Maundvee Pt., Diu Head, Salsett Pt., &c. On its Eastern shores are, Ramen Pt., Calymere Pt., and Palmyras.

12. RELIGION. The two great religious persuasions of Hindoostan are the Hindoo and the Mahometan, whose relative numbers throughout the whole country are probably in the proportion of seven to one. Hindoo mythology is a subject as inexhaustible as it is difficult to render intelligible. The great supreme deity, Brahm, remains in holy obscurity, and superstition is never allowed to profane his name, which is always kept clear of fiction. Three energies, however, the creating, preserving, and destroying, are embodied under the names of Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva, to each of whom a passive energy is allowed. These have all human forms, diversified by the imagination in various ways ; and as the two last are supposed to have descended many times, each *Avatar*, or incarnation, furnishes a distinct deity, to whom worship is addressed : Brahma alone has no incarnation, and is never worshipped. Boodh, or Buddha, is admitted by the Hindoos of all descriptions to be the ninth *Avatar*, or descent of the deity, in the character of preserver ; but the religion of the Buddhists differs greatly from that of the Brahmins, the gods of the latter

being in a state of constant activity, while those of the Buddhists remain quiescent, and do not concern themselves about human affairs.

13. By Europeans the term Hindoo is in general so very loosely and inaccurately applied, as to include religions such as the Buddhist and Jain, professing tenets in direct opposition to the Brahminical system. Besides their three gods Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva, the Hindoos have a whole pantheon of minor deities. The sea, the winds, the heavens, the elements, the sun, moon, and stars, every river, fountain, and stream, are all so many separate deities, or have distinct divinities presiding over them, nothing being done without the intervention of supernatural power. Descending still lower, there are myriads of demi-gods, of a most extraordinary description, and numerous beyond the power of calculation. A little red paint smeared over a stone, a lump of clay, or the stump of a tree, converts it into a god, worshipped by the lower classes and saluted by the upper with much apparent devotion. Any monster, or figure partly brutal, any multiplicity of heads and hands in the object adored, indicate a Brahminical place of worship.

14. The followers of Buddha teach, that from time to time men of surpassing piety and self-denial have appeared on the earth, and from their singular worth have after death been transferred to a state of supreme bliss or absence from pain. These saints, after reforming the world during their life-time, and by their superior sanctity acquiring the power of performing miracles, are imagined after death to possess a command over the living, and it is they who are the direct objects of worship with the Buddhists. Buddha, during his incarnation, reformed the doctrines of the Vedas, and severely censured the sacrifices of cattle, or depriving any thing of life: his sectaries contend with those of Brahma for antiquity, and are certainly in the aggregate more numerous. The Jains do not differ materially from the followers of Buddha, except that the chief object of their worship is Parivranath, a deified saint. The presence of umbrella-covered pyramids or semi-globes, and of plain human figures sitting cross-legged or standing in a meditative posture, points out the temple or excavation of a Buddhist: the 24 saintly figures without the pyramid announce a temple of the Jains.

15. The Hindoo religion is without any acknowledged individual superior, or public convocation; but the immeasurable pre-eminence of the Brahmins over the rest of mankind is a point so perfectly clear to the other castes, that it is never disputed. This division of the people into *castes*, or tribes, each including a number of families of the same rank and profession, is the paramount distinction between the Brahminical Hindoos and the votaries of Buddha: but strict adherence to the peculiar duties of each caste having probably been found impracticable, they have been compelled to relax the spirit of the law, and to admit of numerous exceptions. The *castes* are four in number. The members of the first are called *Brahmins*, from the moeth (wisdom) and are deemed the most sacred; their province is to pray, to read, to instruct, to study the principles of religion, as well as to perform its functions, and to cultivate the sciences. The proper manner of Brahmins procuring their subsistence is by begging, every species of industry being derogatory to their rank. The majority of them may, and do eat animal food; priests, while officiating as such, perhaps do not; but though all priests are Brahmins, all Brahmins are not priests. The members of the second caste are called *Khetries*, from the arms (strength); their duty is to draw the bow, to fight, and to govern, and hence they are entrusted with the government and defence of the state. In peace they are its rulers and

magistrates ; in war they are the generals who command its armies, and the soldiers who fight its battles. The right of bearing arms, however, though confined formerly to this caste, has latterly been found diffused throughout all classes, and even Brahmins have been seen standing in the ranks as common soldiers. The third caste is called *Bice*, from the belly and thighs ; it is composed of husbandmen and merchants, the duty of its members being to provide the necessaries of life by agriculture and traffic. The members of the fourth caste are called *Sooders*, from the feet (subjection) ; they consist of artisans, labourers, and servants, their duty being to labour and to serve.

16. A member of one caste can never quit his own, or be admitted into another ; so that the station of every individual is unalterably fixed, his destiny irrevocable, and the walk of life is marked out from which he must never deviate. Moreover, the members of each caste adhere invariably to the profession of their forefathers ; and from generation to generation the same duties have followed, and continue still to follow, the same uniform line of life. However, though the line of separation be so drawn as to render the ascent from an inferior to a higher caste absolutely impossible, and it would be regarded as a most enormous impiety if one in a lower order should presume to perform any functions belonging to those of a superior caste ; yet, in certain cases, the *Pundits* (or Interpreters of the Hindoo law) declare it to be lawful for persons of a high class to exercise some of the occupations allotted to a class below their own, without losing their caste by doing so. Besides the four acknowledged castes, there is a race of unhappy men, known on the Coromandel coast by the name of *Pariars*, and in other parts of India by that of *Chandalas*. These are outcasts from their original order, who, by their misconduct, have forfeited all the privileges of it. Their condition is, without doubt, one of the lowest degradations of human nature ; if one of them venture to approach a warrior of high caste, the latter may put him to death with impunity. Every Hindoo who violates the rules or institutions of his caste, sinks into this degraded situation : hence it is that they so resolutely adhere to the institutions of their tribe, because the loss of caste is to them the loss of all human comfort and respectability.

17. The modern Mahometans of India may with safety be estimated at one-seventh of the total population, and notwithstanding the subversion of their political predominance by a Christian power, their religion is said to be yet expanding. They are no longer, however, the sanguinary zealots, who, 600 years ago, spread desolation and slaughter among the unconverted Pagans in the name of God and the prophet. Open violence produced little effect on so patient a people, and although the Mahometans subsequently lived for centuries intermixed with Hindoos, no radical change was produced in the manners or tenets of the latter. On the contrary, for almost a century past, the Mahometans have evinced much deference to the prejudices of their Hindoo neighbours, and a strong predilection towards many of their ceremonies.

18. The Christian religion, throughout the whole of Hindoostan, is embraced by about half a million of souls, almost all the descendants of the ancient Christian stocks, and relatively to the other classes existing under circumstances of degradation. The pride of caste among the Hindoos does not singly account for the contempt felt and shown by the followers of the Brahminical system towards them, no such contempt being manifested to the Mahometans, or to the European Christians. There are undoubtedly circumstances of diet and cleanliness, which tend to lower the " Nazarene " in the eyes both of the Mahometan and Hindoo ; and the European holding

rungzebe in 1707, and terminated with the de-
Mahrattas by the British at the commencement
present century. For, although the British
on the last prince of this dynasty the title of
and permitted him to keep up the ceremonies,
yet he and all his family are dependant upon
their daily support, and even the police of his
is under the direction of a foreign resident. The
macy of the British government in India is not
pletely established, as to leave the native
rose into power during the decline of the
thority, of secondary importance. Hindoos
fore, must not now be viewed as a mere asse-
Nabobs, Sultans, and Rajahs, but as a compo-
tion of the British Empire, changed and mod-
territorial distribution by the effect of Britis-
tion, and in its internal economy by the promul-
gation of British laws and regulations.

20. The formation of the enormous empire now possessed by
meant in India has been urged on by circumstances so uncom-
mon, and so fervently deprecated by the ruling authorities both
abroad, and so peremptorily interdicted by the strongest leg-
islative enactments, that its acquisition under such circumstances appears
impossible. Incredible pains, it is well known, have been taken by
the governments of India since 1784, not only to avoid every
occasion, but also to resist the importunity of the different native chiefs and

21. The existing political system of Hindoostan consists, 1st. of provinces actually in the possession of the British: 2dly. of states subsidiary and tributary, who are protected by the British from external invasion, as well as from internal dissension, and who on their part engage in case of exigence, to place the entire resources of their territories at the command of the protecting power, and likewise to abstain from all political intercourse with the other powers of the country, except when in concert with the paramount authority which undertook to arbitrate their disputed right: and 3dly. of independent states. The only independent states now remaining in India are those of the Rajah of Nepaul, the Rajah of Lahore, the Amiers of Sind, the King of Cabul, and the Dominions of Sindia. Besides these there are a few colonies in the country belonging to European powers, such as Goa, Demann, and Diu I., on the Western coast, which are in the possession of the Portuguese: Pondicherry, on the coast of Coromandel, and Calcuttanaagore, a few miles above Calcutta, which belong to the French: Chinsura also near Calcutta, and Sadras, a few miles below Madras, which belong to the Dutch: Tranquebar, on the coast of Coromandel, and Serampoor near Calcutta, which are in the possession of the Danes.

22. The native governments of Hindoostan have no political system of their own which can afford protection to their weaker neighbours; indeed the very reverse of this is the case, the object of every native state separately, and of all collectively, being to destroy the weak. Internally the constitution of these states is an unmixed despotism, every movement originating with the government, to the power of which there is no limit except the endurance of the people, the sovereign's will being never opposed but by a general insurrection. The consequence of this is, that the great bulk of the population entertain no attachment to any set of political principles or to any form of government, and they have been so long accustomed to revolutions and frequent changes of sovereigns, that they obey with little repugnance whoever is placed over them, expecting his sway, like that of his predecessor, to be only transitory. They are solicitous for the toleration of their religious doctrines, rites, and prejudices, the security of their domestic concerns, and the prosperity of their particular villages; but are totally destitute of what in Europe is understood by the term patriotism. They have no idea of loyalty or disloyalty but to the identical masters who support them, and their ideas run equally counter to all European notions of civil liberty. And in adverting to the incessant revolutions of these countries, it is a remarkable fact that in all the schemes of polity, whether of the victors or the vanquished, the idea of civil liberty in any shape never seems to have been contemplated, and is to this day without a name in the languages of India.

23. The provinces into which the whole of India is divided, together with their capital towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

NORTHERN INDIA: MOUNTAIN DISTRICTS:	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population.
	Assam - - -	Jorhat - -	—
	Bhotan - - -	Tassiusdon - -	—
	Sikkim - - -	Sikkim - -	—
	Nepaul - - -	Catmandoo - -	20,000
	Gurwal or Sireenagur -	Sireenagur - -	—
	Sutlege and Jumna -	Belaspore - -	15,000

	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population.
NORTHERN INDIA (continued)	HINDOOSTAN PROPER :		
	Bengal - - -	Calcutta - -	500,000
	Babar - - -	Patna - -	312,000
	Allahabad - - -	Allahabad - -	24,000
	Oude - - -	Lucknow - -	250,000
	Agra - - -	Agra - -	60,000
	Delhi - - -	Delhi - -	175,000
	Lahore - - -	Lahore - -	100,000
	Cashmere - - -	Cashmere - -	180,000
	Ajmeer or Rajpootana - - -	Ajmeer - -	—
	Moultan - - -	Moultan - -	—
	Cutch - - -	Bhooj - -	—
CENTRAL INDIA :	Goojerat - - -	Surat - -	450,000
	Malwah - - -	Oogen - -	120,000
	THE DECCAN :		
	Orissa - - -	Cuttack - -	80,000
	The Northern Circars - - -	Masulipatam - -	40,000
	Gundwana - - -	Nagpoor - -	100,000
	Candeish - - -	Chandore - -	—
	Berar - - -	Ellichpoor - -	—
	Aurangabad - - -	Bombay - -	170,000
	Beeder - - -	Beeder - -	—
	Hyderabad - - -	Hyderabad - -	200,000
	Bejapoor - - -	Bejapoor - -	—
SOUTHERN INDIA :	THE CARNATIC PENINSULA :		
	The Carnatic - - -	Madras - -	460,000
	Balaghaut - - -	Bellary - -	—
	Canara - - -	Mangalore - -	40,000
	Mysore - - -	Seringapatam - -	40,000
	Salem and The Barra- mahl - - -	Salem - -	—
	Coimbatoor - - -	Coimbatoor - -	15,000
	Malabar - - -	Calicut - -	35,000
	Cochin - - -	Cochin - -	—
	Travancore - - -	Trivanderam - -	—
	Island of Ceylon - -	Colombo - -	60,000

24. Calcutta, or Calicata as it is called by the natives, is the capital of the province of Bengal, and the metropolis of all the British possessions in India. It is situated about 60 miles from the sea, on the E. side of the Western branch of the Ganges, named by Europeans the Hoogly or Calcutta river, but by the natives the Bagheerettee or true Ganges, and considered by them peculiarly holy. Calcutta is the residence of the supreme governor of India, and the Presidency of which it is the capital is

rior to those of Madras and Bombay : it is likewise seat of the metropolitan, who, under the title of *Governor of Calcutta*, has the superintendence of all the ecclesiastical affairs of India. It likewise possesses a university with several professors, and a college, instituted by the Hindoos for the instruction of their sons in European learning. Its population is estimated at 200,000 souls.

In the year 1690, when Calcutta was only a village, the English had a factory here in virtue of a firman granted them by Aurangzebe; six years afterwards they were allowed to fortify it in consequence of a rebellion in Bengal. This place is situated on the banks of the river, and dignified soon after its erection with the title of *Fort William*, in compliment to King William. The factory continued to flourish, and the town increased, till the year 1756, when it was taken by the nabob Suraja ud-daulah, upon which occasion the greater part of the garrison were suffocated in the Black-hole. The English, however, retook it the following year, and shortly afterwards laid the foundations of a new and stronger fort, transferring the name of the former one to it. The locality of this fort is not fortunate, for it has extensive muddy lakes and an immense swamp close to it; the jungle, however, has been gradually cleared away to a certain distance, the streets have been properly drained and the ponds dried up, by which a vast surface of stagnant water has been removed: but the air of the town is still much affected by its vicinity to the Sunderbunds, the low, woody, and inhospitable grounds lying at the mouth of the Ganges. At high water the river is here a full mile in breadth, but during the ebb the opposite shore exposes a long range of dry sand-banks. The modern fort extends along the Eastern side of the river above five miles, but the width varies very much at different places: it was formerly nearly encompassed by a trench called the *Mahratta Ditch*, but this has been gradually filled up. On approaching Calcutta from the sea, a stranger is much struck by its magnificent appearance, owing to the elegant villas on each side of the river, the Company's houses and gardens, the spires of the churches, minarets, and minarets, and the strong and regular citadel of *Fort William*.

26. Madras, called *Mandirraj* by the natives, is the chief town of The Carnatic, and the capital of the Presidency of Madras, which includes the Southern part of India below the R. Kistnah. It is situated on the Northern part of the Coromandel coast, and though it is not possessed of many external advantages, it would be difficult to find a worse situation for a capital; it lies on the margin of a shore where a rapid current runs, and against which a tremendous surf beats even in the wildest weather. It contains about 460,000 inhabitants. The government of Madras is subordinate in political matters to the supreme government of Bengal, but otherwise carries on all the business of a regular state.

27. The English possessed no fixed establishment here till A. D. 1639, in which year a grant was received from the descendant of the Hindoo dynasty of Bijanagur, then reigning at Chandergherry, for the erection of a fort. In consequence of this permission, the English agent proceeded with alacrity to the construction of a fortress, which in India is soon surrounded by a town: the former was named Fort George: but, owing to a previous arrangement made with the Rajah's deputy, the latter was called after his father Chenappa, and the name of Chenappapatam continues to be universally applied to the town of Madras by all the natives of this part of the peninsula. The territory granted by the Rajah extended five miles along shore, and one inland. It was besieged and taken by the French in the year 1744, at which period the whole English colony did not exceed 300 men, and of these only 200 were soldiers of the garrison: it was restored, however, five years afterwards at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, subsequent to which the fortifications were very materially strengthened, and it is now one of the best defended places in India. All the offices of government and courts of justice are in Fort St. George; but the governor and all the principal inhabitants have houses at a short distance in the country, where they mostly reside.

28. Bombay, the capital of the province of Aurungabad, and the chief town of the Presidency of Bombay, stands on the Northern part of the Western coast of India. It is situated on an island of the same name, about ten miles long and three broad, and is connected with the I. of Salsett by a causeway: it is separated from the mainland by a narrow channel, and forms, together with several other neighbouring islands, a commodious and well sheltered harbour. The town lies at the Southern extremity of the island, and is about five miles in circuit: it commands the entire trade of the North Western coast of India, together with that of the Persian Gulf. It contains about 170,000 inhabitants.

29. Bombay owes its origin to the Portuguese, to whom it was ceded in 1530, having been before that time a dependency on a chief residing at Tauna in Salsett. It was ceded to King Charles 2d. in 1661, as a part of Queen Catherine's portion, and was accordingly taken possession of by the English in 1664; his majesty, however, thought proper afterwards to transfer it to the East India Company, in free and common soccage, as the manor of East Greenwich, on the payment of the annual rent of 10*l.* in gold. The fortifications of Bombay are deemed too extensive, and would require a numerous garrison; towards the sea they are extremely strong, but on the land-side they do not offer the same resistance. The island of Bombay is literally a barren rock, and presents no encouragement to agricultural speculations, but its maritime and commercial advantages are great. It is the only great settlement in India where the rise of the tides is sufficient to permit the construction of docks on a large scale: these docks are entirely occupied by the Parsees or Fireworshippers, who possess an absolute monopoly in all the departments, and have built several ships of 74 guns and many other large vessels, without the least assistance from Europeans.

30. The city of Delhi, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated in the Northern part of Hindoostan, on the banks of the R. Jumna. It was for a long time the metropolis of the Patan Empire, the residence of the Great Mogul, and the boast of all India: during the era of its splendour, it covered, according to popular tradition, a space of 20 square miles, and the ruins at present occupy nearly as great an extent. Since 1703 it has been in reality subject to the British Government, though still the residence of the Emperor or Great Mogul, who has a nominal authority only, for he derives no very means of existence from the British government. Modern Delhi is about six miles in circumference, and is surrounded on three sides by a wall of brick and stone: it contains about 175,000 inhabitants.

31. Notwithstanding the great antiquity of Delhi, and the long period of its duration, during which it ranked as the first city of Hindoostan, there is nothing in its locality particularly attractive, the adjacent country being rather sterile than fruitful, and the river not being navigable during the dry season for boats of any considerable burthen. Under these disadvantages, however, it became a city of great fame and magnitude, and is distinguished in the Hindoo books of mythological history by the name of Indraprasth. It was taken in 1193 by the Mahometans, under Cuttubaddeen Khan, who made his residence here, and on his succeeding to the throne it became the capital of Hindoostan. In 1398 it was taken, pillaged, and reduced to a heap of ruins by Tamerlane, but partially recovered afterwards, till towards the end of the 16th century, when Akbar transferred the seat of royalty to Agra. In 1631 the emperor Shah Jehan founded the new city of Delhi on the W. bank of the Jumna, near the ruins of the old city, and gave it the name of Shahjehanabad; it continued to increase in splendour and importance till the invasion of Nadir Shah in 1739, when 100,000 of its inhabitants were massacred, and 62,000,000 l. of plunder are said to have been collected: at this time its population is stated to have amounted to two millions of souls, but this is probably a great exaggeration.

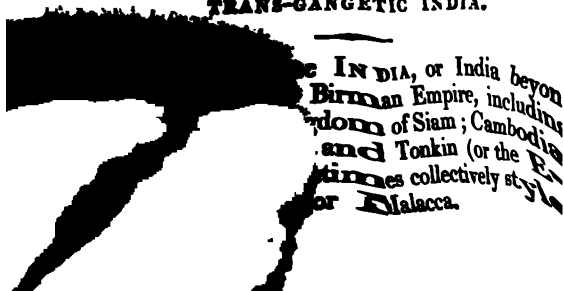
32. Although Delhi is in such a decayed condition, an impression is still prevalent all over India, that the power which has possession of it and of the king's person is the virtual ruler of Hindoostan: and under this idea many independent states have repeatedly applied to be received as subjects and tributaries, and complained of the refusal as a dereliction of duty on the part of the British government. From the same cause also, although the Delhi sovereign had been long deprived of all real power and dominion before political events brought him connected with the British government, almost every state, and every class of people in India, still continue to acknowledge his nominal authority. The current coin of every established power is still struck in his name, and the princes of the highest rank still bear the titles, and display the insignia, which they or their ancestors derived from this source: and the Delhi Emperor, amidst all his vicissitudes, is still considered the only legitimate fountain of similar honours. Delhi contains the remains of many splendid palaces which formerly belonged to

the great Omrah of the Empire: it is likewise adorned with tul mosques, still in good repair, the most remarkable of which is a cathedral called Jama Musjid. This mosque is 261 feet high; its whole front is faced with white marble; it is surrounded at the base by the magnificent domes of the same material, flanked by two minarets. The streets in general are narrow and irregular; and the houses, built in great disorder, of brick, mud, bamboos, and mats, mostly covered with thatch, resembling a motley group of villages rather than an extensive city.

33. The Island of Ceylon lies off the Southern extremity of India, which it is separated by Palk's Strait; its population is 1,200,000 souls, and it contains 19,400 square miles, or almost as much as Scotland. Its proper name is Singhala, from which Ceylon is probably derived; by the Hindoos on the continent it is called Serendib, and by the Mahometans Serindib; it is also frequently called Ceylon. The inhabitants are called Cingalese or Ceylonese. Ceylon is connected with India by a chain of islands and sand-banks, called Adam's Bridge, from a tradition amongst the Cingalese that Adam crossed the bridge from a peninsula from their island, which they affirm to have been Paradise. On this account also the lofty mountain, called Adam's Peak, which is situated in the Southern part of the island, is a place of great veneration amongst the natives; they make pilgrimages to it, and believe that it was hence Adam took his last view of Paradise, before he was expelled from it: on the summit of the peak there is a large rock, upon which the pilgrims fancy they can trace the print of Adam's foot: the sacred mark is therefore surrounded with several rows of small shrines. On the S. W. coast of the island is its capital Colombo, the seat of the British government, and the head-quarters of the army in Ceylon. Farther North, Jaffnapatam is at the N. extremity of the island, the seat of the Trincomallee on its N. E. shores. In the centre of Ceylon stands the city of Candy, the old capital of the Candians, who occupy the greater part of the island; these people for many years seriously disturbed the peace and prosperity of Ceylon, but at last they were compelled by the British government to put themselves totally under the protection of the British.

CHAPTER XXI.

TRANS-GANGETIC INDIA.



2. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. The mountain range of the Garrows, which separates the N. frontier of the Birman Empire from the Kingdom of Assam, is an arm of that lofty range in Tibet, which furnishes the sources of most of the great Chinese rivers. Near the frontiers of India, Birmah, and Assam, it throws off a ridge called Mugg or Mog, which runs between the R. Irrawaddy and the coast of the Bay of Bengal, and terminates in C. Negraia. Besides this, there are two other lofty ranges, which have their origin in Tibet and intersect the peninsula of the Farther India in its whole extent. The Western one of these skirts the Chinese province of Yunnan, traverses Siam, Tanasserim, and Malaya, and terminates in Romania Pt. the Southern extremity of the latter country and of the whole continent of Asia. The other or Eastern range likewise passes through Yunnan, and after having separated Tonkin and Cochinchina from the rest of the Empire of Annam, terminates on the shores of the China Sea.

3. The R. Irrawaddy rises in Tibet, and flows Southward past Ummerapoora, Ava, and Pegu, into the G. of Martaban; it is 2,030 miles long, and enters the sea by several arms. To the E. of this are the two rivers Thaluayn and Maygue, which both rise in the S. W. extremity of China; the former runs past Martaban into the G. of Martaban, and the latter (which is also called Menan) flows past the town of Siam into the G. of Siam. The E. part of the Trans-Gangetic peninsula is intersected by the Cambodia or Japanese R., one of the greatest rivers in the Old World; it rises in the N. E. part of Tibet, flows through the Chinese province of Yunnan and past the town of Cambodia into the China Sea: it is 2,300 miles long, and is likewise known by several other names, such as Satchou, Kiouloung, and Mykaung.

4. The Bay of Bengal washes the whole Western coast of the Birman Empire, and at the Gulf of Martaban runs up into Pegu: it is separated from the China Sea by the Strait of Malacca, which runs between the peninsula of this name and the I. of Sumatra. The China Sea washes the Eastern shores of the Empire of Annam, and forms the two great gulfs of Siam and Tonkin; the former of these lies to the S. of the kingdom of Siam, between Tanasserim and Cambodia, and the latter rolls in upon the coasts of Tonkin and the Chinese province of Canton. The chief capes of Trans-Gangetic India are, C. Negrais the S. W. termination of the Birman Empire; Romania Pt., the Southernmost promontory of Malacca and all continental Asia; Mui-Sha-Kaoc, the Southernmost point of the Empire of Annam; and C. Padaran, its South Eastern extremity.

5. THE BIRMAN EMPIRE, or Ava as it is likewise called, is bounded on the N. by Tibet and Assam, on the W. by Bengal and the Bay of Bengal, on the S. by the G. of Martaban, and on the E. by the Empires of Annam and China. It contains about 207,700 square

miles, and its population is estimated at 10,500 souls. In consequence of the insult which the Bir offered a few years since to the British flag, they been compelled to give up many of the provinces in Western and Southern part of the empire to their querors; the chief of these are, Yo, Aracan, Martavay, Tanasserim, Mergue, &c., including a super extent of about 40,000 miles, and a population of 400,000 souls.

6. The Birmanese are sectaries of Buddha. They lieve in the metempsychosis, and that, having under a certain number of migrations, their souls will at either be received into their paradise on the mountain Meru, or be sent to suffer torments in a place of punishment. Hence it is that they pay such adoration to the white elephant; for they suppose this animal contain a human soul in the last stage of many millions of transmigrations, at the conclusion of which he is absorbed into the essence of the Deity, and annihilated and thus attain the highest degree of beatitude. The government of the Birman Empire is despotic. The state-officers are exposed to great vicissitudes of fortune; their dignities and employments depend altogether upon the will of the monarch, and can be taken away, and they themselves put to death whenever such a proceeding might appear convenient: they are all slaves of the king, and in their turn their vassals are designated slaves to them.

7. Notwithstanding the Birmanes are members of the sect of Buddha, and not disciples of Brahma, they nevertheless reverence the Brahmins, and acknowledge their superiority in science over their own priests. The priests of Ava do not inflict on themselves disgusting tortures after the manner of the Brahminical Hindoos, but they deem it meritorious to mortify the body by the voluntary penance of abstemiousness and self-denial. Like the other sectaries of Buddha, they are much attached to their *lars* or household gods. A Birman family is never without an idol in some corner of the house, made of wood, alabaster, or silver; besides which the country abounds with *praws*, [or temples] in a ruinous state, yet new ones are continually erected, upon the gilding of which vast sums are continually expended. In this empire gold is the type of excellence, yet, although highly valued, it is not used for coin in the country, silver in bullion and lead being the chief monies of the state: his majesty's person is never mentioned, but in conjunction with that precious metal, and though it is sometimes employed in ornaments for the women, and in utensils and ear-rings for the men, by far the greatest quantity is used in gilding their temples.

ere is a very important personage, half sacred, half profane, remain-
mentioned, who, being the second dignitary in the kingdom, has a
cabinet composed of a prime minister, two secretaries of state, a
er of intelligence, besides other subordinate ministers and function-
me of whom manage the estates which he possesses in various
the country. This individual is the white elephant, to whom pre-
lors muslins, chintzes, and silks are regularly made by all foreign
phant; the order of precedence in Ava being 1st. the king, 2d. the
ous to the royal palace, with which it is connected by a long open
supported by numerous wooden pillars, at the farther end of which
black velvet, embossed with gold, conceals the august animal
of the vulgar, and before this curtain the offerings intended
eye displayed. His dwelling is a lofty hall covered with splendid
oth inside and out, and supported by a number of elegant columns;
ings are very magnificent, being gold studded with large diamonds,
apphires, rubies, and other precious stones; the vessels out of which
are likewise of gold inlaid with precious stones, and his attendants
ard amount to one thousand persons. The animal thus fed, dressed,
ended, and apparently unconscious of his own importance, receives
great distance the homage of his votaries, who humbly bow their heads
e him nearly to the ground.

The Indian nations to the E. of the Ganges have been always more
fious in their intercourse with foreign states than those to the West. The
ment of Ava and Pekin resemble each other in many respects, but in none
more than in their vanity and pride, which often manifest themselves in a
sumptuous manner. Like the sovereign of China, his majesty of Ava acknow-
ledges no equal. *Boa* [or Emperor] is a title which the present sovereign
of the Birman has assumed; the sovereign of China is termed *Oudee Boa*,
or Emperor of *Oudee* (i. e. China). Although deficient in every thing that
can render a state formidable, its sovereign and his functionaries are quite
inflated with the idea of their own importance, and present the spectacle of
a court at once feeble and arrogant.

10. The Birman Empire forms altogether the most extensive native go-
vernment, subject to one authority, at present existing in India; but where
not confined by the sea, its frontiers are in a perpetual state of fluctuation.
Towards the middle of the 16th. century, it was composed of three distinct
states, viz. Ava, Aracan, and Pegu. The inhabitants of Ava, now known
as the Birman, became tributary to the kings of Pegu, but revolted at last,
and established their independence. About the middle of the last century,
the king of Ava made an attempt to reduce the Birman once more under his
power, but the latter drove him out of their territory, and pursued him to the
very frontiers of Siam; since this period they have kept possession of the
whole empire. Ava Proper is centrally situated, and surrounded by the
conquered provinces, the principal of which are,

Northern Provinces.	Yo-pyee or Yo.	Central Provinces.	Aracan.	Southern Provinces.	Pegu.
	Kathes or Kasi.		Mranmapyee.		Martaban and Tavay.
	Katheeshan.		Mrelapshan.		Mergue.
	Bong.		Lowashan.		Tanasserim.
	Kariayn.		Yunshan.		Junkseylon.

But their limits and subjection are constantly varying.

11. Ummerapoor, or Amarapura (i. e. *the city of the immortals*), is the metropolis of the Birman Empire, at

is situated on the shores of a romantic lake close to the banks of the R. Irrawaddy: its fortifications are respectable for an Eastern city, and are thought so much of by the natives that they consider the place impregnable, but they are insufficient to resist the approaches of an enemy at all skilled in artillery tactics. Ummerapoora was founded so recently as 1783, about four miles to the Eastward of Ava, or Aingwa, the ancient capital, which, through some unaccountable caprice of the reigning monarch, was abandoned for a much worse situation, and now lies in ruins. The population of Ummerapoora has been estimated at 170,000 souls, but this is probably somewhat of an exaggeration: the splendour of the religious buildings in it is very striking, but most of the other houses are mean in their appearance, only a few amongst them being built of solid materials.

12. The principal sea-port of the Birman Empire is Rangoon, situated on one of the arms of the Irrawaddy, in Pegu, about 30 miles from its mouth; it derives all its importance from its maritime situation, which renders it very convenient for the purposes of commerce: it contains about 20,000 inhabitants. About 50 miles to the N. of Rangoon stands the town of Pegu, or Bagoo as it is vulgarly called by the inhabitants: it is the capital of the ancient kingdom of Pegu, which now forms one of the Southern provinces of the Birman Empire, and is the residence of the viceroy appointed by the emperor to manage the affairs of his new province, as well as the seat of the provincial government. The ancient city of Pegu was about six miles in circuit, but upon the final subjugation of the Peguers by the Birman monarch, the latter caused it to be razed to the ground, and dispersed or led into captivity all the inhabitants. It never recovered from this desolation, for it is at present little better than a great village, its population being said to be below 10,000 persons. The original inhabitants of the kingdom of Pegu denominate themselves Mon; by the Chinese and Birmans they are termed Talleing; and by the Siamese, Mingmon. When the Birmans had completed the subjugation of Pegu, they subdivided it into 32 districts, and named it Henzawaddy, which is the Sanscrit name for the whole province.

13. THE KINGDOM OF SIAM is bounded on the N. and W. by the Birman Empire, on the S. by the Gulf of Siam, and on the E. by the Empire of Annam, of which it is sometimes reckoned a part: it contains about 61,200 square miles, and its population is vaguely estimated at 4,000,000 inhabitants. The Siamese belong to the sect of Buddha. Their government is the most absolute despotism, there being no power in the state which can in any degree control the will of the sove-

reign ; hereditary dignity and a popular assembly are altogether unknown. A register is kept of all the male population, who are bound when called upon to perform military service during six months of the year ; they are supplied with arms and accoutrements, but receive neither provision nor pay. The capital of the kingdom is Siam or Yuthia.

14. Siam may be described as a vast plain intersected by the Menam, on the banks of which its principal towns are situated : this river, like the Nile, overflows its banks, and renders the land in its vicinity exceedingly fertile. Indeed a great similarity exists between the climate and productions of Egypt and Siam ; and it has been observed that Cham or Chemia, the old name of the former country, bears great affinity to that of Siam, which in the native tongue signifies *black*. The Siameze distinguish their nation by the name of *Thay* ; the Birmans call them *Syans* or *Schans*, and sometimes *Yondras* after their capital *Youdra* ; the Chinese, Malays, and Europeans, call them *Siamese*. But though the kingdom of Siam is now confined within the narrow limits above assigned to it, its sovereignty and language had, in prosperous periods, a much wider range, till they were exposed to severe losses by the growth of the Birman power. In the middle of the last century the Western provinces were wrested from them, and their capital itself was invested and taken : and though upon the return of the Birman army they became once more independent, they were obliged, after a long war, to purchase peace by the cession of the important territories of *Tavay*, *Tasserim*, and *Mergue*.

15. Siam, the metropolis of the kingdom, is situated in the Southern part of the country, on a low island in the R. Menam, about four miles in circumference, and fifty from the sea : it is intersected by many canals, and has several other islands adjacent to it. The city is surrounded by a brick wall, which in some places is tolerably well fortified and in good condition, but many parts of it are completely decayed : it is of great extent, but by no means well inhabited. The streets run along the canals, so that vessels from the river may enter the city, and land their cargoes near the principal houses : some of them are tolerably large, but most of them are narrow and very dirty, and not a few of them liable to be inundated. The houses on firm ground are generally built of bamboos, planks, and mats ; those on the banks of the river stand on posts about six feet high, that the water may pass freely under them. There are many suburbs round the city, some of which consist of inhabited vessels, each containing several families. The natives of Siam generally distinguish their city by the name of *Seeythaa*, but the Birmans frequently call it *Dwarawuddy* : it is likewise known by the appellations *Youdra* and *Juthia* or *Yuthia*.

16. THE EMPIRE OF ANAM OR ANNAM is bounded on the W. by the Kingdom and Gulf of Siam, on the N. by China Proper, on the E. and S. by the China Sea : it derives its name from its Southern situation with respect to China, the word *An-nam* signifying *The r of the South*. It contains several states, which, independent of each other, are all united under on

these are Cambodia, Laos, Tsiompa, Cochin-China, and Tonkin, which collectively include a superficial extent of about 311,300 square miles, and a population roughly estimated at 17,000,000 inhabitants. The two great religions of Annam are, that of Confucius, which is followed by the emperor and his servants, as well as by most of the upper orders, and that of Buddha, which is more extensively cultivated by the body of the people: the former prevails in the Eastern, and the latter in the Western part of the country. The government is despotic.

17. *Tonkin, Cochin-China, Tsiompa, Laos, and Cambodia*, are stated to have formerly formed part of the Chinese Empire; but on the Mogul invasion of China in the 13th century, the Chinese governors of the South took the opportunity of setting up the standard of independence. In this manner several distinct kingdoms were created, the sovereigns of which, however, continued to acknowledge for many years a nominal vassalage to the throne of China. The name of Nuoe-Annam, or the Kingdom of Annam, is sometimes especially applied by the natives to the states of Cochin-China and Tonkin. The government, though despotic, is by no means so tyrannical as that of Siam: the power of the sovereign, who is called *Dow*, is looked upon rather as a paternal authority exercised towards all his subjects as one and the same family. The holding of places of power and trust is not confined to the people of any one particular state, neither do these monarchs, nor any others, confer hereditary nobility upon the subject. The emperor of Annam, formerly only king of Cochin-China, was driven from his throne by faction, but having afterwards recovered it, he reduced to subjection all the other provinces which now form the component parts of his empire.

18. *Cambodia*, or *Camboge*, is the Southernmost state in Annam: it is bounded on the W. by Siam, on the S. by the Gulf of Siam and the China Sea, on the E. by Tsiompa and Cochin-China, and on the N. by Laos. It extends about 400 miles in length from North to South, and about half that distance in breadth from East to West. The colouring matter, named Gamboge, derives its name from this kingdom, being the concrete resinous juice of certain trees found here of superior quality, but produced likewise in other parts of India. Very little intercourse has at any time subsisted between the people of Cambodia and the European settlements of India: but the country is extremely well adapted to inland navigation, as the rivers of Cambodia and Siam communicate in the interior by a branch called the Anan. The great river of Cambodia is navigable for boats during a considerable part of its course, and large ships may ascend it for many leagues from its mouth. The capital of the kingdom is known by the name of Lowaick or Levek, but it is also called Cambodia by the Europeans: it stands on an arm of the great river, about 180 miles from the sea, and though formerly a considerable city, is now an indifferently mean place.

19. *Laos* lies to the N. of Cambodia, being bounded on the E. by Cochin-China and Tonkin, on the N. by the Chinese province of Yunnan, and on the W. by the Birman Empire and the kingdom of Siam. It is traversed by the great river Maykaung, and its government and religion are of

the same character as those of Cambodia. Its capital Lanjang, or Laung, stands on the banks of R. Maykaung, and is said to be both extensive and splendid: its population has been stated at 50,000 souls.—TSIOMPA, Campha, or Binh-Tuam, as it is also called, lies to the S. E. of Cambodia, between it and Cochin-China. It is an inconsiderable little state, and derives whatever interest it possesses from its capital Sai-Gon being the chief naval emporium of the whole empire of Annam.

20. COCHIN-CHINA is bounded on the W. by Cambodia and Laos, on the E. by Tsiompa, on the E. by the China Sea, and on the N. by Tonkin. It is a strip of land about 400 miles long, and generally about 60 broad, but possesses considerable importance; its king is more independent than any of the other powers of Annam, and indeed the whole empire is not unfrequently called the empire of Cochin-China. The government of Cochin-China is an absolute monarchy, though not of so despotic a nature as many of the other Asiatic kingdoms: the nobles possess very considerable power, and the people are not kept in such a continual restraint as in China. The religion of the Cochin-Chinese is a modification of the widely-extended doctrines of Buddha. The natives are extremely superstitious, and their devotional exercises, like those of the Chinese, are more frequently performed to avoid an ideal evil, than with the hope of acquiring a positive good. The pretensions of China to the kingdoms of Cochin-China and Tonkin (once tributary to it) have led to frequent wars between them, in which the Chinese have been invariably discomfited by the superior valour and discipline of their opponents. Cochin-China is remarkable for the number of excellent harbours, with which its coast is provided; the most frequented of these is that of Turon, where the greater part of its commerce is carried on. Amongst its other harbours may be mentioned those of Camraigne, Quinhone, and Toanhua.

21. The kingdom of TONKIN, or Tungquin as it is sometimes written, touches to the S. on Cochin-China, from which it is separated by a wall; to the W. on Laos; to the N. on the Chinese provinces of Quangsee and Yunnan; and on the E. it is washed by a part of the China Sea, to which it has communicated the name of Gulf of Tonkin. It originally formed a part of the Empire of China, but was detached from it in 1378, shortly after which it began to assume such a great degree of importance, that it conquered Cochin-China, and kept it for some time in subjection. At the beginning of the present century, however, it was in its turn completely rendered tributary by the Cochin-Chinese, and has ever since been ruled by a viceroy delegated by the sovereign of that people. On becoming a separate independent state, it retained many of the laws and institutions of the parent country; but these have been gradually altered, and the executive government, which was formerly vested in the Mandarins, amongst whom letters formed the chief road to distinction, is now altogether vested in the viceroy. The religion of the Tonkinese is a modification of the system of Buddha, blended with many local and peculiar superstitions. They have a most profound veneration for their parents and ancestors, considering them as tutelary divinities, who watch and protect the families of their descendants, and possess power in proportion to the sanctity of their lives during their existence on earth: to them sacrifices are offered four times a year, and every third anniversary of their death is celebrated with additional pomp. The higher classes are described as adherents of Confucius, who submit to the worship of images and other ceremonies, through deference to public opinion: whilst, on the other hand, some of the more barbarous tribes worship the tiger, dog, and other animals. The capital of Tonkin is Kehoa,

or Backing, which is the residence of the viceroy appointed by the king of Cochin-China, and is said to contain 40,000 inhabitants.

22. MALAYA or Malacca. This peninsula touches to the N. upon the Birman Empire and the newly acquired British territory in this quarter, being separated from them by the Isthmus of Kraw, which is only 80 miles in breadth: on all other sides it is washed by the sea, viz. on the W. by the Indian Ocean and the Strait of Malacca, and on the S. and E. by the China Sea and the Gulf of Siam. The Malays are Mahometans. The government is a tumultuary despotism.

23. The Malays are of the Sonnite Mahometan sect, but do not possess much of the bigotry so common among the Western followers of the prophet. Little is known concerning the religion they professed prior to their conversion to Islamism, but it appears to have been some modification of the Hindoo systems, much corrupted, and blended with other idolatries. They are named Khek by the Siamese, and Masu by the Birmans; they are an intelligent, active, and industrious body of men, noted throughout the East for their commercial enterprises, and much dreaded for their piratical habits. They are said to have originally inhabited Palembang and the banks of the R. Malayu, in the I. of Sumatra, and to have migrated thence about the middle of the 12th century to the South Eastern extremity of the opposite peninsula, where they first built the town of Singapore and afterwards that of Malacca: but there appears good reason to believe that the name of Malaya was applied to the peninsula many ages before.

24. When the Siamese monarchy was at the height of its power, its supremacy was acknowledged by the whole peninsula, but since the Birmans gained the ascendancy over them, all the Southern states of Malaya have shaken off the yoke, whilst only a moderate tribute is exacted from those in the North. The whole peninsula, therefore may be said to be divided into a number of independent governments of the rudest construction, founded on principles nearly feudal; the head of the state is a *rajah*, who usually assumes the title of sultan, and under him is a certain number of *datties* or nobles, who have a train of subordinate vassals. In general, however, the king is but little obeyed by the chiefs, or the latter by the people; violent acts of immediate power are committed both by the chiefs and their superior, but there is no regular system of obedience. These remarks do not apply to those parts of the Malay territories which are under British influence, such as Singapore, Malacca, Pulo-Penang, with the districts and islands adjoining the Birman Empire: in these, owing to the mild discipline and equitable government which have been introduced, much of the ferocity attributed to the Malay character, has entirely disappeared.

25. The strait between the peninsula of Malaya and the I. of Sumatra is known by the name of the St. of Malacca. In it, about midway down the coast of the peninsula, and at a distance of two miles from it, is Pulo-Penang, or Prince of Wales' I. as it is also called. This island belongs to the British, having been given by the king of Queda, as a marriage-portion with his daughter, to the captain of a British merchant ship, in 1785; it was accordingly taken possession of during the following year, in the name of his Majesty, and for the use of the East India Company, who, finding it

a convenient situation for the purposes of commerce, and a place of rising importance, have constituted it into a separate government, subordinate only to the governor-general of India. At the commencement of the present century, the king of Quada ceded to the British a tract of country, on the opposite coast of the peninsula, 18 miles in length, and three in breadth, in consideration of an annual tribute, which still continues to be paid to him. Pulo-Penang is a flourishing little settlement, and continues to increase both in population and utility, though it has been latterly eclipsed by Singapore.

26. Lower down the strait lies the town of Malacca itself, the capital of the whole peninsula, situated upon the coast, about 100 miles from its northernmost point. It first fell into the hands of the Portuguese, from whom it was taken by the Dutch, and from the latter again by the British: it was formerly a place of some strength and consequence, but as the formation of our settlement at Pulo-Penang rendered it of little or no use as a place of trade, the garrison and stores were mostly withdrawn, the fortifications nearly razed, and the whole place dismantled. Since that time its importance has gradually been diminishing, though it is still a useful post as a guard against the piracies of the Malays, and the jealous intrusions of the Dutch.

27. Singapore is situated at the Southern extremity of the Malay peninsula, on a small island of the same name, and has given name to the Straits of Singapore, which are formed by a cluster of innumerable little islands, varying much in their shapes, and indented on all sides by little bays and sandy coves. Here the China Sea, which connects the Indian and Pacific Oceans, commences, being bounded on the W. and N. by the mainland of Asia, and on the E. and S. by Formosa, the Philippine Is., Palawan, Borneo, Banka, &c. The town of Singapore is said to have been founded by adventurers, who originally emigrated from the I. of Sumatra, but it possessed little consequence till it fell into the hands of the British, to whom the Sultan ceded the whole island in 1824, as well as the neighbouring islets and districts for four leagues round it. It derives all its importance from its central situation between India and China; and touching upon the Southernmost point in the whole continent of Asia, it becomes, as it were, the last connecting link between the mainland and that extensive archipelago of large and productive islands, which lies off this extremity of the old world. It has no native productions of its own to export, and must therefore be looked upon merely as a depôt for the consignment and sale of merchandize. But the increase of its population, and its transit of goods, during the last five years, are without example in the annals of history; and are owing, no doubt, to the superior regulations of the British traders, and the advantages they hold out to the natives of the surrounding countries, when compared with the well-known habits and policy of the Dutch, as well as to the facility which it has afforded our own merchants, for the exercise of their ingenuity in escaping from the fetters of prejudice and monopoly. Its population amounts to nearly 60,000 souls, and is composed of British, Dutch, Portuguese, Americans, Malays, Hindoos, Arabs, Parsees, Birmese, Siamese, Chinese, Javanese, and colonists from many of the great islands in the neighbourhood.

AUSTRALASIA.

28. Australasia consists of an extensive chain of numerous islands, lying off the South Eastern extremity

of the continent of Asia, from China and Trans-Gangetic India to the limits of the Great Southern Ocean. The chief of these islands are, Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, the Philippines, the Moluccas, Papua or New Guinea, Java, Australia or New Holland, Van Diemen's Land, and New Zealand, all of which are not unfrequently designated by the common appellation of the East India Islands.

29. Of these, SUMATRA is the nearest to the continent of Asia, being separated from it only by the Strait of Malacca: its general direction is N. W. and S. E., and it is divided by the equator into two nearly equal parts. The inhabitants are partly Mahometans, but by far the greater number of them are Pagans. The whole island is divided into a number of petty independent states, the power and extent of which are constantly varying with the means possessed by each of subjecting its neighbour, or of repelling the invasion of its own territory. The chief towns of Sumatra are Bencoolen, the capital, situated on the Western coast, towards the Southern extremity of the island; Palembang, near the Eastern coast, opposite the I. of Banka; and Acheen, at the North Western point, opposite the Nicobar Islands.

30. Sumatra is known to the natives of the neighbouring islands, as well as to most of the inhabitants themselves, by the names of Purichu and Indalas. Its principal political divisions are the empire of Menacabow, the Malays, the Acheenese, the Battas, the Rejangs, and the people of Lampong. But there are many other independent princes or sultans, such as those of Palembang, Jambi, Indragiri, Siak, &c. and these in their turn are kept in check by a number of petty chiefs, whose respective territories are shut in and defended by marshes and forests. Until about 120 years ago, the Southern part of Sumatra was dependant on the King of Bantam in Java, whose lieutenant visited it annually to collect the tribute and appoint governors. Bencoolen, and a few other places on the Western coast, belonged formerly to the English, but owing to our acquisition of more valuable territory in this quarter of the globe, they were found to have materially diminished in importance, and were therefore ceded by treaty to the Dutch in exchange for other possessions: the latter people now claim the dominion of the whole island, but are only able to establish their sovereignty over a few districts in the immediate neighbourhood of the sea-coast. All the forms of government throughout Sumatra, are a mixture of the feudal and patriarchal; and their laws are properly a set of long established customs handed down to them from their ancestors, the authority for which is founded in usage and general consent. A few of the Sumatrans have embraced Islamism, but by far the greater number of them are pagans, who

appear to have no notion of a Supreme Being, or of a future state; they have no public or private form of worship of any kind, nor are there any idols or priests to be met with amongst them. They are not, however, without superstitious belief of many kinds; and have a confused notion, derived probably from their intercourse with other people, of certain superior beings, who have the power of rendering themselves visible and invisible at pleasure.

31. BORNEO, or Varuni as it is called by the inhabitants, is the largest island in the world after Australia and New Guinea: it lies to the Eastward of Sumatra and Malaya, and to the South Eastward of the Empire of Annam. Independent of those few of the inhabitants who profess Mahometanism, the natives are all pagans, concerning whose religion but little is known, except that they seem to worship some fanciful being of a gloomy and revengeful nature, supposed to delight in human blood. Borneo is divided into several districts, governed by independent sovereigns, who are constantly waging war with each other: many Chinese have settled on the island, as well as Malays and Javanese, and have become subject to the native chiefs.

32. Borneo is of a more solid and compact figure than the other islands of the Eastern Archipelago, and is not so much indented by arms of the sea as they are, although it possesses many excellent bays and harbours: its interior is wholly unexplored, and indeed the coast itself is but indifferently known. The inhabitants of the interior [or Aborigines] have usually received the name of Idaan and Horaforas, being probably the most ancient and original race of all the Eastern Islands, with the exception of the Papuas or oriental negroes. The inhabitants of the N. coast of Borneo have a tradition that their country was once subject to China; but when first visited by the Portuguese, in 1580, they found the Mahometan religion firmly established all along the sea-coast. The British had formerly settlements on different parts of Borneo, but they have latterly resigned them in favour of the Dutch, who affect the sovereignty of the whole island. The factories of the latter people are at Banjarmassin, Passir, Borneo, Sambas, Mampava, Pontiana, Landak, and Succadana, which are collectively the chief towns of the island: they obtained the two last-mentioned from the King of Bentam, to whose ancestors they had in remote times belonged, and sent a small force to take possession of them, and to erect a fort at Pontiana; but, like many other of their establishments, they have never realized profit from it equal to the expense incurred.

33. Borneo, the capital of the whole island, is situated at its North Western extremity, about 10 miles up a river of the same name, upon the banks of which the houses are built upon posts, and are ascended by stairs and ladders. It resembles Venice in having small water-channels in place of streets; all traffic is transacted on board of boats, which float up and down the river with the tides. Borneo is the capital of a kingdom of the same name, the sultan of which resides there, and from it the whole island is supposed by many to have obtained its appellation.

34. About midway between Borneo and Sumatra lies the I. of BILLITON, which formerly belonged to the British, but which has been of late years ceded to the Dutch. This has been also the case with BANKA, a much larger and more important island, separated from Sumatra by a narrow strait, known by the name of the Strait of Banka.

35. The I. of CELEBES lies to the E. of Borneo, being separated from it by a strait generally about 120 miles broad, known by the name of the Strait of Macassar; its Northern part lies immediately under the equator. The town of Macassar, or Mungkasar as it is called by the natives, is situated at the South Western extremity of Celebes, and has given name to the strait which separates it from Borneo; it is the capital of the island, and the chief factory belonging to the Dutch, who have named it Fort Rotterdam.

36. The natives and Malays call Celebes Neegree-Oran-Buggess, and sometimes Tana-Macassar, after the two principal tribes by whom it is inhabited. It is an island of a most irregular shape, being indented by three deep bays, which divide it into four peninsulas: the names of these bays are Tominie B., Tolo B., and the B. of Bony. Celebes is portioned out into several independent states, the principal of which are Bony or the Buggess country, Macassar, Mandhar, Looboe, &c.; these are governed by different rajahs or chiefs, some of whom enjoy their rank by inheritance, and some receive it by the suffrage of a national council. The Buggesses, Macassars, and Malays of the sea-coast, profess a corrupted form of Mahometanism; but there are many tribes in the interior not yet converted from their ancient religion, and others who do not seem to have any. The Portuguese first obtained settlements in Macassar, but were expelled by the Dutch in 1660, who have until lately entirely controlled the island, the Chinese alone being permitted to trade with it. In consequence of the increasing strength of the state of Bony during the latter half of the 18th century, the power of the Dutch rapidly declined in Celebes, and it was altogether annihilated in 1812 by the attack made upon it by the British forces: since the peace of Paris, however, their settlements have been restored to them.

37. To the N. of Borneo is the long narrow island of PALAWAN, which connects it with the group of the Philippines; the greater part of it was formerly under the dominion of the Sooloos, but it is little known to Europeans.—The Sooloo Archipelago is a chain of islands stretching from the North Eastern point of Borneo to the Western extremity of Mindanao, which is the Southernmost of the Philippine Islands: they are about 60 in number, and have obtained their appellation from the chief island, which is called Sooloo, and is the residence of the Sultan by whom they are governed. The sovereignty of them is hereditary, and the government a mixture of the feudal and aristocratical, the power of the sultan being frequently counterpoised by that of the nobles. Many of the Sooloos belong to the Sonnite Mahometan sect; but their zeal for that faith, and attention to its ordinances, are feeble and capricious: by far the greater portion of them, however, are idolaters. From the time the Spanish colonies were planted in the Philippines, to the present day, an unceasing warfare has been carried on between

them and the Sooloos, in which the latter have generally had the advantage, although they occasionally sustained reverses.

38. The group of the PHILIPPINE ISLANDS lies to the N. E. of Borneo and Celebes, and to the S. E. of China Proper, forming in this quarter the Western limit of the North Pacific Ocean, which it separates from the China Sea. The largest of them is Luzon, to the S. of which the principal islands are Mindoro, Masbate, Panay, Negros, Zebu, Bohol, Samar, Leyte, and Mindanao. They are frequently collectively called the *Bisayas* after the inhabitants, or *Yslas de Pintados* from the natives having been accustomed to *paint* their bodies before the arrival of the Spaniards. All these islands are nominally subject to the Spanish government at Manilla, which is the capital town of the whole group, and is situated on the S. W. coast of the I. of Luzon.

39. After this town the Philippine Islands are sometimes vulgarly termed *The Manillas*: some of them are partially colonized, and pay tribute, collected by the governors of the eleven provinces into which they are divided, and which are unitedly placed under the charge of a viceroy; but others, such as Mindanao, are not only independent of the Spanish establishments in the Philippines, but carry on a perpetual warfare against them. Magellan, whose ship first circumnavigated the globe, on the day of St. Lazarus, A. D. 1521, discovered this extensive group of islands, which he named the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, or the Western Isles. Several voyages were subsequently undertaken by the Spaniards, for the purpose of taking possession of these islands; but nothing was effected until the year 1564, when, in consequence of orders from Philip 2d of Spain (in compliment to whom they were named the Philippine Islands), a fleet was despatched from Mexico, which stopped at Zebu, and soon wholly subdued it. After several engagements with the rajahs of the different islands, the Spaniards effected a settlement at Manilla, which they constituted the capital of their possessions in the Philippines. In the middle of the last century, Manilla surrendered to a British fleet, but was afterwards delivered up to the court of Madrid. Since that period the Spanish colonies in these fruitful islands have not been disturbed by any European enemies, although frequently threatened with invasion from the British settlements in India.

40. Besides Manilla and the larger establishments on Luzon, the Spaniards have many smaller settlements scattered over the islands to the South; but such is the weakness of their government, that they have never been able to protect them against the attacks of a few despicable pirate vessels. For two centuries past the piratical cruisers from Mindanao and Sooloo have been plundering the coast of the Philippines, capturing vessels, pillaging and burning towns, massacring some of the inhabitants, and carrying others into slavery; and although unable to defend them, such is the jealousy of the Spaniards, that they do not allow the natives to possess arms of any kind. Manilla, the capital of the Philippines, is situated on the South Western coast of the I. of Luzon, on the Bay of Manilla and near the mouth of the R. Pasig; it contains many magnificent churches and hand-

circumference of two and a half or three feet. A few of the Papuas, who dwell on the sea-shore, have been converted to the Mahometan faith, but by far the greater part of those who have any notion of religion are idolaters.

44. New Guinea was discovered in 1527 by a Spanish navigator, who gave it the name of New Guinea, from the great resemblance between its natives and those of Guinea in Africa. Its inhabitants appear to be a second race of aborigines in the Eastern Islands, in several of which they are still to be found, and in all of which they seem originally to have existed. Those of them who inhabit New Guinea, are divided into small communities or families, unconnected with each other, and little disposed to encourage the visits of Europeans. Several of their tribes have formed themselves into small savage states, and made some advances towards civilization; but the greater part of them, even with the example of more civilized races before their eyes, have betrayed no symptoms either of a taste or capacity for improvement, and continue in their primitive state of nakedness, sleeping on trees, devoid of houses and clothing, subsisting on the spontaneous productions of the forest, or the precarious success of their fishing and hunting excursions.

45. To the N. E. of New Guinea lie several large Islands, as New Britain, New Ireland, and the Solomon Is., which are inhabited by a race as uncivilized as the Papuas. To the N. of them, and of New Guinea, are the Paloo Isles, the Caroline Is., the Ladrone or Marianne Is., and several others, which form the Westernmost groups in the Pacific Ocean.

46. The I. of JAVA, or Yava as the name is sometimes pronounced, lies to the S. of Borneo, and to the S. E. of Sumatra, from which last it is separated by a narrow strait, called the St. of Sunda; and hence all the neighbouring islands are frequently called the Sunda Isles: the sea between it and Borneo is named the Java Sea. Java belongs to the Dutch; it is nearly 600 miles long, in an Easterly and Westerly direction, and generally about 80 broad. The Javanese appear to have once professed the Hindoo religion, but the predominant faith at present is that of Mahomet, adulterated by many superstitious notions and observances. Batavia, the capital of Java, and the metropolis of all the Dutch possessions in the East India Islands, is situated on the Northern coast of the island, not far from its Western extremity. It is now only the fourth city on the island in point of population, yielding to Solo, Djajaianta, and Samarang; the number of its inhabitants has decreased from 160,000 to about 48,000.

47. When the Dutch first established themselves in Java, it was divided into three great states, viz. Bantam, Jacatra, and the empire of the Soesoe-

hasaan, which last was the most extensive, and comprehended two-thirds of the whole island. At present Java is divided into five principal states or governments, which are Bantam, Jacatra, Cherbon, the empire of the Soesoehasnan, and that of the Sultan, the two last being sometimes included under the common name of the Gold Coast. By the system of the Dutch government the country is divided into districts, over each of which is a chief or governor, whose duty it is to take care that the full share of the peasants' produce be delivered for the use of the Dutch, the sovereign, and himself. The princes of the different states into which Java is subdivided, are all more or less under the influence of the Dutch East India Company, which maintains forts and garrisons throughout their dominions. For more than a century the Dutch remained in unmolested possession of this large and fertile island, and might have continued so but for the French revolution, which brought them under subjection to that nation, and rendered an attack necessary on the part of the British. An expedition was in consequence despatched from India in 1811, which soon reduced the whole island, and put an end to the Dutch sovereignty over it. But prior to this, the Dutch kept possession of Java by rather a precarious tenure, adopting the sinister policy of fomenting a constant dissension among the more powerful princes of Java, who governed under the titles of allies and tributaries; and even these means were found insufficient to retain the people in due subordination, without large reinforcements being annually sent from Europe. Of late years, however, the Dutch have been reinstated by the British in possession of the island, and continue by their old system of government to keep the native princes in tolerable subordination.

48. The form of government among the Javanese is essentially despotic, and answers to the most abstract idea of unlimited and uncontrolled power. The will of a Javanese prince is literally law; and there are neither civil nor religious institutions to oppose a barrier to it. Amongst the people there are no hereditary ranks or distinctions: the monarch is heir to all under his dominion, by his authority may raise the humblest peasant to the first rank in the empire, or level the highest with the meanest of his subjects. The town of Batavia was founded by the Dutch in 1619, taken by the English in 1811, and restored to the former people five years afterwards. It stands in a low marshy plain, at the union of several small rivers, which are only navigable for boats; and in many of the streets are canals filled with water almost stagnant. The miasma generated in the putrid mud-banks and canals renders the town exceedingly unhealthy. Batavia, on account of the beauty of its buildings and immense trade, has been styled The Dutch Queen of the East; but within a few years it has lost a great part of its splendour and importance.

49. There is an extensive chain of islands stretching from the Eastern extremity of Java to the South Western part of New Guinea, known by the names of Bally, Lombok, Sumbawa, Floris, Timor, Timorlaut, and Aroo. They are inhabited by a half-civilized race of people, governed by rude laws, some of whom profess the Mahometan religion, but by far the larger number follow the doctrines of Buddha. The principal island is Timor, at the South Western extremity of which is the settlement of Coepang, belonging to the Dutch, to whom also the greater part of the coast is subject. Dhelli lies on the North Western side of Timor, and is the miserable relic of the extensive possessions once belonging to the Portuguese in this quarter of the globe.

50. AUSTRALIA, or NEW HOLLAND as it is also called, lies to the S. of New Guinea and of the range

It stretching thence to the Eastern extremity of
 It is the largest island in the world, being nine-
 as large as all Europe, and hence from its great
 some geographers have dignified it with the title
 continent. Indeed it was long supposed to form
 a great Southern continent, and when first dis-
 l, about the year 1605, was named *Terra Australis*
ita. The Eastern part of it is called New South
 and has long been in the possession of the British,
 m also the rest of the island is now considered as
 . The interior remains for the most part unex-
 with the exception of a small tract of country
 the British settlements at Port Jackson, Botany
 c.: the coast has been nearly all examined, and
 d to be very much diversified in its appearance.
 at rivers are to be met with in the country; the
 yet discovered are the Brisbane, the Hawkesbury,
 acquarie, the Morumbidgee or Murray, and the
 n, but none of these are of any importance. The
 are amongst the most degraded race of savages.
 are wholly without any form of government of their
 the only superiority consists in personal strength
 rage, and their only divisions as a people are into
 s.

reat Britain, as is well known, has formed a settlement on the
 coast of this extensive country, to which those of her subjects are
 sported, who are condemned to banishment for their crimes: felons
 merly banished to the American colonies, prior to the separation of
 from the mother country. The first site fixed upon was Botany
 ere the governor and the garrison intended for the defence of the
 arrived, together with the first party of convicts, in 1788: but
 barkation, it appeared that no part of the intended site of the co-
 s free from objections, and it proved necessary to repair to the
 harbour of Port Jackson, which lies a few miles to the Northward.
 urse of time, other settlements were laid out along the Hawkesbury
 n the interior parts of the country; for a long time an extensive
 mountains, called the Blue Ms., and traversing the country from
 at some distance from the coast, formed an impassable boundary to
 t, but these have now been crossed, and many flourishing stations
 ed in the fertile plains beyond them.

he territory of the colony is divided into ten counties, viz. Cumber-
 mden, Argyll, Westmorland, Londonderry, Roxburgh, Northum-
 Durham, Ayr, and Cambridge. The chief town, and the capital
 hole colony, is Sydney, situated on the Southern shores of Port
 which as a harbour is probably not exceeded by any other in the
 The cove on which the town stands is called Sydney Cove, and is

one of the finest natural bodies of water that can be imagined; it is perfectly secure against all winds, and vessels of any size may lie there in the greatest safety. The other principal towns are Paramatta, Hawkesbury, Windsor, Newcastle, Liverpool, and Bathurst. Besides the colony in the neighbourhood of Port Jackson, the British have other settlements in different parts of Australia: as Melville I., Bathurst I., and Raffles Bay, on the Northern part of the island; and Swan R. and King George's Sound, at its South Western extremity.

53. The island of VAN DIEMEN'S LAND, likewise belonging to the British, lies off the South Eastern extremity of Australia, from which it is separated by a broad strait called Bass Strait. It abounds in excellent harbours, the principal of which are Derwent Harb., Port Davey, Macquarie Harb., Port Dalrymple, and Fleurieu Bay. Within a few years several colonies have been sent to this island, from the original establishment at Port Jackson. Hobart Town, which is the principal place, stands on the banks of the R. Derwent, at the South Eastern corner of the island, and was founded in the year 1804; since which another settlement, named Launceston, has been founded on the R. Tamar, towards the Northern coast.

54. To the South Eastward of Australia lies NEW ZEELAND, composed of two large islands separated from each other by a strait about 12 miles wide: they are called by the natives Eaheinomauwe and Tawai (or Tawai-Poenammoo). The inhabitants are savage in their manners, addicted to many gross and revolting superstitions, and are represented as cannibals: their government is a complete despotism, being divided amongst a variety of petty chiefs, who are continually involved in the most barbarous and bloody wars.

POLYNESIA.

55. The name of Polynesia (signifying a collection of *many islands*) is applied to those extensive chains of islands, which lie scattered in the Pacific Ocean between the Equator and the Southern Tropic, to the Eastward of New Guinea and Australia: it is also considered by some as including the islands to the N. of the Equator, and E. of China and Japan. The principal groups to the S. of the Equator are the New Hebrides, New Caledonia, the Friendly Islands, the Navigators Islands, the Society Islands (the chief of which is Otaheite), the Low Islands, and the Marquesas. The Sandwich Islands are by far the most important of those which lie N. of the Equator, and it was at Owhyhee, the principal one amongst them, that the famous navigator Captain Cook lost his life in a misunderstanding with the natives.

56. These islands are mostly of coral formation, and new ones appear to be constantly springing up above the surface of the ocean: they are nearly all inhabited by a half-civilized race, subject to the capricious will of barbarian chiefs, and given up to the most degrading practices of idolatrous superstition, except in those places where the unwearied efforts of Protestant

Europeans have converted them to Christianity. The major part of the islands belong to the British by right of discovery, but some of the most valuable ones have been formally ceded to them by the natives and their chiefs in council.

CHAPTER XXII.

RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.

1. ASIATIC Russia is bounded on the W. by European Russia; on the S. by the Ottoman Empire, the Kingdom of Persia, Independent Tartary, and Mongolia; on the E. by the North Pacific Ocean; and on the N. by the Arctic Sea. It contains about 3,583,600 square miles, or nearly one million more than the whole of Europe, and its population has been roughly estimated at 13,000,000 souls: it is sometimes called Siberia, but improperly so, for this name belongs only to the North Eastern provinces of the empire.

2. Asiatic Russia is amongst the most forlorn and desolate regions on the face of the globe, its importance and value not bearing the least proportion to the vastness of its extent. A great portion of its lands are included within the limits of the Frigid Zone; and even those, which from their position lie within the range of a milder climate, are exposed from the peculiarities of their physical structure to a degree of cold, which ranks them with the least favoured countries of Europe. The situation of the greater part of it, also, excludes it from all communication with the civilized parts of the world: the shores of the Arctic Sea are barred by almost perpetual ice, whilst those of the Pacific Ocean can only be reached by European vessels after traversing a greater distance than the circumference of the globe.

3. PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS. Asiatic Russia is traversed by extensive ranges of mountains, generally of a considerable breadth at the summit, but of no very great height; they present for the most part the wildest scene imaginable, being interspersed with thick woods, torrents, and precipices, without a human habitation, excepting a few sheds erected by hunters, who have explored the solitary regions in quest of game. Most of these ranges are arms of the great chain of Sayansk or Yab-

lonnoy, which divides Asiatic Russia from Chinese Tartary, and after coasting the shores of the N. Pacific Ocean, terminates in East Cape, the Eastern extremity of the whole continent of Asia. The range of the Oural M^s., which lies at the Western extremity of Asiatic Russia, and partly separates the two continents of Europe and Asia, has been already described; as has also the lofty chain of the Caucasus, between the Black and Caspian Seas, in the S. W. extremity of this part of the empire.

4. **PRINCIPAL RIVERS.** The rivers of Asiatic Russia are nearly on the same grand scale as its mountains, several of them being amongst the most considerable in the world. They do not, however, generally speaking, convey the same benefits to the regions which they water as the great streams of other countries, but roll across desert plains, whence an almost perpetual winter banishes the arts and social life. A wide flat surface of water is bordered sometimes by a gloomy forest, sometimes by a dreary marsh; it presents no objects except a few bones of mammoths uncovered by the swelling of the torrents, or a few savage fishing canoes toiling for a precarious existence. Most of these rivers rise in the Yablonnoy M^s., and run Northwards into the Frozen Sea. Amongst the chief of them we may mention the Obe, which is nearly 2,200 miles long; it receives the waters of the Irtysh, Ishim, and Tobol, and flows into the Arctic Ocean at the sea of Obe. Farther Eastward is the Enisei, which is 3,115 miles long; it is joined at Eniseisk by the Angora, which traverses the great L. Baikal near the frontiers of Mongolia: the Toungouska is likewise one of its tributaries. Beyond this is the R. Lena, which is 2,069 miles long; and still farther E. are the Yana, the Indigirka, the Kolima, and the Anadir, the last of which flows into the Pacific Ocean, all the preceding rivers discharging themselves into the Arctic Sea.

5. Besides these rivers we may mention the Volga and the Oural both in the S. W. part of Russia, which flow into the Caspian Sea, and are the only ones of any consequence having a Southerly course. The Volga is

mostly in European Russia: it rises in the Valdai M., and after a S. E. course of 2,100 miles enters the Caspian at Astrakhan. The R. Oural rises in the Oural M., and after a Southerly course of 964 miles, enters the N. extremity of the Caspian Sea: it forms in its whole length the boundary between Asiatic Russia and Independent Tartary.

1. **GULFS, CAPES, &c.** The principal Gulfs of Asiatic Russia are, the Sea of Kara near Nova Zemlia, and the Sea of Obe at the mouth of the R. Obe, both in the Arctic Sea; the Gulf of Anadir near Bhering's Strait, the Sea of Penjina and the G. of Okhotsk between Kamtchatka and the mainland of Russia, all three in the Pacific Ocean. Its only inland sea besides the Caspian, which forms part of its S. W. frontier, is L. Baikal near the springs of the R. Enisei and on the borders of Mongolia. C. Severo Vostotchnoi is the Northernmost point in Asiatic Russia, and indeed in the whole continent of Asia, being much nearer the Arctic Pole than any promontory in Europe. East Cape is the Easternmost land of all Asia, and forms the Western side of Bhering's Strait: this strait lies between it and C. Prince of Wales in America, and is only 40 miles across in its narrowest part. The Southernmost point of Kamtchatka is called C. Lopatka.

2. **7.** Asiatic Russia is divided into sixteen provinces, the government of which is the same as that already described in European Russia*. The Christian religion is only partially spread amongst them, most of the inhabitants following the doctrines of Buddha, though many of the people towards the Persian and Turkish frontiers are Mahometans. There are but few European inhabitants in Asiatic Russia, excepting such as are compelled to resort hither. The greater part is composed of those unfortunate beings and their descendants, who have been doomed by the Russian government to exile in these dreary regions, either as a punishment for actual or supposed crime, or as a necessary consequence of having been taken in war.

3. **8.** Christianity has hitherto made very little progress amongst the widely-dispersed natives of Asiatic Russia, though considerable efforts have recently been made, and with some success. The religion generally diffused throughout this extensive territory, is the system of Buddha, or of the Lamas, which originating in Hindoostan, has now its central seat in Tibet, and is generally professed over all the East and centre of Asia. In Siberia, however, it is very extensively combined with superstitious incantations, especially towards the Northern parts of the country, where the refined doctrines of the system have degraded into the rudest paganism, being replaced by mere sorcery and the worship of stone images. Mahometanism is likewise professed towards

* See p. 138 sec. 12.

the South Western frontiers, upon the borders of the Ottoman and Persian Empires; and by the late conquests of Russia, many of the Armenian Christians have also fallen under her power.

9. Before the arrival of the Russians in Siberia, the Northern part of Asia was inhabited by Nomadic people of various races, differing from each other in language and manners, and separated by immense deserts, beyond which the victorious Mongols never attempted to pass. The Russians have now gradually conquered it, and hold it in subjection by a handful of undisciplined troops scattered at wide intervals over this vast and thinly-inhabited dominion. Lines of fortification, composed of wooden forts, are formed chiefly along the Southern frontier as a defence against the Tartars and Kirgees. The yoke of conquest, however, presses but lightly upon the native tribes, who are merely obliged to pay a certain moderate tribute, being allowed to follow all their pursuits and habits unmolested.

10. The Northern part of Siberia is inhabited by a race of hunting tribes peculiar to itself. The most considerable of these are, the Samoedi, who inhabit the whole coast as far Eastward as the R. Lena; the Tschuktschis and the Koriaks, who dwell between this river and the Pacific Ocean; the Ostiaks, between the R. Obe and Enisei; the Tungousis, between the Enisei and the Lena; and the Yakoutes or Zouks, between the last mentioned river and the Sea of Okotsk. The tracts in the South Eastern part of the country about Lake Baikal, the R. Selenga, and the upper courses of the Lena and Enisei, are occupied by Mongols, especially by one race of them called Burats. The districts upon the borders of Independent Tartary are inhabited by various tribes bearing the common name of Tartars, as well as certain local appellations, such as Baschkirs, Tschulims, Sluschivis, &c.

11. The names of the sixteen governments and provinces into which Asiatic Russia is divided, together with their chief towns and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

Governments and Provinces.				Chief Towns.	Estimated Population.
SIBERIA:	Tobolsk	-	-	Tobolsk	25,000
	Omsk	-	-	Omsk	8,000
	Tomsk	-	-	Tomsk	9,000
	Eniseisk	-	-	Eniseisk	6,000
	Irkoutsk	-	-	Irkoutsk	22,000
	Yakoutsk	-	-	Yakoutsk	7,000
SOUTHERN PROVINCES:	Okhotsk	-	-	Okhotsk	1,500
	Orenburg	-	-	Orenburg	20,000
	Astrakhan	-	-	Astrakhan	50,000
	Caucasus	-	-	Stavropol	3,000
	Circassia or Tcherkess	-	-	Georgievsk	4,000
	Georgia or Grouzia	-	-	Tiflis	33,000
	Abascia	-	-	Anapa	2,500
	Daughistan	-	-	Derbent	5,000
	Shirvan	-	-	Baku	8,000
	Armenia or Erivan	-	-	Erivan	12,000

12. Tobolsk, the capital of the government of the same name, and the metropolis of all Asiatic Russia, is

situated in the Western part of Siberia, near the confluence of the Irtysh and Tobol, from which latter river it has derived its name. When the Russians first took possession of the country, in 1587, they erected a mere wooden fort with the view of keeping the natives in subjection: it was burnt to the ground about 60 years afterwards, when they built the present town in its stead. The buildings, however, with the exception of a few churches and convents, are all of wood, and present a very mean appearance. Tobolsk is a place of considerable commerce and thoroughfare, owing to all the furs and other descriptions of goods, which are collected as tribute from the wandering tribes of these immense deserts, being deposited in its warehouses. It contains about 25,000 inhabitants.

13. Irkoutsk, the capital of a province of the same name, is situated in the South Eastern part of the country, not far from the shores of L. Baikal, and at the junction of the Angora and Irkut, from which last river it has derived its name. It contains many churches and schools, and is the residence of the officers of the Russian government, and an important military station. Irkoutsk is a place of greater commercial consequence than any other in Siberia, having an advantageous situation, and being the residence of many merchants engaged in the trade between Russia and China, from the common limits of which it is only 100 miles distant. Okotsk stands on the shore of the Sea of Okotsk, to which it has communicated its name: this sea is bounded on the W. by the mainland, on the E. by the peninsula of Kamtschatka, which forms part of the N. E. extremity of the continent, and on the S. by the Kurile Islands. These islands extend from the Southern promontory of Kamtschatka to the head of the Japanese Is., and belong mostly to Russia, though a few of the Southern ones are tributary to the emperor of Japan.

14. To the S. E. of Irkoutsk lies the Russian town of Kiachta, on the common limits of Siberia and Chinese Tartary: it is the only point of communication between the empires of Russia and China, the latter, according to the jealous policy by which they have been always actuated, allowing foreign trade only at one point of each of its frontiers. Kiachta has therefore risen to great eminence since it was fixed upon, in 1728, as the centre of commerce between the two empires: the great fair is held in December, when merchants flock hither from every part of the surrounding countries. The Chinese town in Mongolia is separate from the Russian, and is called Maimatchin; they are both defended by strong fortresses. On the line of demarcation the Russians have raised a pile of stones, which is surmounted by a cross; whilst the Chinese have built a kind of cone or pyramid.

15. Astrakhan, the capital of the province of Astrakhan, is situated in the South Western part of Asiatic Russia, on an island in the Volga, formed by two arms of the river, and only 25 miles distant from its mouth in

the Caspian Sea. The city is three miles in circuit, of a very irregular figure, and surrounded by a wall; the churches and public edifices are built of stone, but the houses in general are of wood. Astrakhan is a place of great trade and manufacture, for which purposes it is favourably situated, from its lying on the borders of Asia and Europe. It contains about 50,000 inhabitants.

16. It was the design of Peter the Great to make Astrakhan the centre of an extensive commerce, and he accordingly encouraged the conflux of inhabitants from all parts. Its present population consists of Russians, Tartars, Greeks, Armenians, Persians, Jews, Indians, British, and French. Astrakhan was formerly the capital of a province, or kingdom, in the country of Kipschack or Capchac, belonging to the Mongol Tartars and extending as far as Moscow; but after various revolutions it fell into the hands of Russia, A. D. 1554. Tiflis, or Teflis as the name is sometimes written, is the capital of Georgia, and lies in the Southernmost part of Asiatic Russia. It is beautifully situated on the banks of the R. Kur, at the Southern foot of the Caucasus, and nearly in the centre of the isthmus which separates the Black and Caspian Seas. Since the conquest of Georgia by the Russians, in 1801, Tiflis has become an important military post; it is the residence of their governor and commander-in-chief, who has always a great force stationed under him in this neighbourhood. It contains many handsome churches and mosques, and is very famous for its hot springs.

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

17. The name of Tartary, or Tataria as it is also called, is applied in its most extended sense to the whole central part of Asia, stretching from the Caspian Sea on the W. to the shores of the Pacific Ocean on the E., and from the empires of Persia, Cabul, Hindoostan, and China, on the South, to that of Russia on the North. This extensive region is inhabited by a great number of tribes, varying in name and character, but generally addicted to a Nomadic life; dwelling without towns or villages, in tents set up in the open fields; living on horse-flesh and on the milk of mares. It is divided into two principal parts, Independent Tartary and Mongolia or Chinese Tartary.

18. Independent Tartary is bounded on the W. by the Caspian Sea, on the N. by Asiatic Russia, on the E. by Chinese Tartary, and on the S. by Persia and Cabul: it contains 893,300 square miles, and about 5,500,000 inhabitants. Its boundary, however, towards the *frontiers of India* and the Chinese Empire is rather indefinite;

many geographers including Little Bukaria, Little Tibet, and even Tibet itself, within the limits of Independent Tartary, whilst others assign these countries to India, and others again to Mongolia, to which last they seem more properly to belong. Independent Tartary is so called from its being in the possession of a number of independent tribes, and to distinguish it from Mongolia, which is subject to the empire of China.

19. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. Independent Tartary is in general an elevated country. It is traversed by several ranges of lofty mountains, which in a manner connect the Ouralian chain in Russia with the Himalah in India. The Beloo Tag is a spur of this latter range, forming the line of demarcation between Tartary and Mongolia; the upper part of it is called Terek Tau. From it towards the W. extends the range of the Ala Tau between the rivers Sihon and Jihon, which as it approaches the Aral Sea is called the Batona or Bila Mountains. The Northern part of Independent Tartary is traversed by a lofty range of mountains connecting the Ouralian chain with the Great Altai M^s. of Mongolia: it is familiarly called The Rampart of Gog and Magog, but it is known in the country by various names, as Gori-Mamet-Tau, Algydim-Zano M^s., and Uluk-Tau.

20. Independent Tartary is watered by a number of important rivers, which are either received into the Aral Sea, or become lost in the *Steppes* or moors of the country. The two principal ones are the Sir or Sihon and the Jihon or Amoo, which last is likewise called by its old name the Oxus. The Sihon rises in the Terek Tau on the frontiers of Mongolia, and flows with a N. W. course of 1,000 miles through Turkestan into the E. side of the Aral Sea. The Jihon is farther to the Southward, and forms in the upper part of its course the boundary between Persia and Independent Tartary: its springs are in the Beloo Tag, near the borders of India, whence it flows with a N. W. course of 1,300 miles into the S. part of the Aral Sea.

21. Amongst the other rivers of Independent Tartary we may notice the *Tchouï*, which loses itself in L. Kaban-Kulak; the Jar-Jakahi, or Sarasu

as it is also called; the Turgai and Irgiz, which discharge themselves into the Lakes of Aksakal-Barby; and the Emba or Djem, which flows into the N. E. part of the Caspian Sea. The R. Oural, which rises in the Oural M^s. and runs into the N. extremity of the Caspian Sea, has been already described; as has also the R. Irtish, which has its source in Mongolia and runs thence into the Frozen Ocean: both these rivers form the line of demarcation between Independent Tartary and Asiatic Russia, the former towards the N. W., and the latter towards the N. East. The R. Ishim traverses the N. part of Tartary, and joins the Irtish above Tobolsk.

22. The Aral Sea lies to the E. of the Northern part of the Caspian, with which it is thought by some to have once communicated: it is 160 miles long from N. to S., and about 80 broad from E. to West, and is principally supplied by the two great rivers Jihon and Sihon. There are also several other lakes in Independent Tartary, though of much smaller extent; the chief of these are L. Teniss, L. Karagu, L. Chargaldjin, and L. Solontzi. The Caspian Sea washes the whole W. frontier of the country, and forms several gulfs in it, as the G. of Mertvoi, the Dead Gulf, Kindelinsk Bay, the G. of Karabuga, and the B. of Balkan. Tartary is likewise remarkable for its plains and flats, which are of immense extent and interspersed amongst its mountainous tracts; they are commonly termed Steppes, as the Steppe of Ishim in the N. part of the country.

23. RELIGION and GOVERNMENT. Most of the Tartars profess the Mahometan religion in its utmost rigour. The Koran, according to the Sonnite dogmas, is implicitly assumed as the guide, not only in faith and doctrine, but in civil government and in domestic life, and it adds very materially to the authority of the monarch. The political constitution of the different Tartar tribes presents a great contrast to what usually prevails in so rude and simple a state of manners. It is a complete depotism, the will of the sovereign being the only law and commanding unreserved obedience. This circumstance depends probably upon the military habits of the people, according to which, and to the forms and customs of a camp, the whole government is administered. The Uzbecks are by far the most powerful people in the country, nearly the whole of which is under their dominion: the other principal tribes are the Kirghees, Bukarians, and Turcomans.

24. Independent Tartary is likewise frequently called Turan and Turkestan, not only from its having been the original or acquired seat of the Tartar race, known by the name of Turks or Toorks, but from the great power still exercised by the Khans of that part of it properly denominated Turkestan, over the rest of the country. It is also sometimes called Jagatai, Dshagatai, and Mawerelnahr, but the latter name is only properly applied to the tract of country between the rivers Amoo and Sihon. The name of Tartar is said to have first originated with the Chinese, who call all their neighbours,

without distinction, *Tata* or *Ta-dae*; in proof of which derivation, it is stated that the Persians and Arabians know nothing of the Tartars under that appellation. It was first brought into general use in Europe, after *Baaty's* invasion into Hungary, under King *Frederic 2d*. Whatever be the origin of the name; it seems to be clear that the Tartars are of Turkish origin, and that their proper name was *Turk* or *Turkman* (otherwise *Trukhman*), and not *Tartar*. In this opinion, the learned men of their own nation concur: in which circumstance it may be added, that the Tartar language is merely the old Turkish, and the modern Ottoman Turks speak the Tartar tongue, only in another dialect. The Tartars themselves affect to derive their descent from *Turk*, the pretended eldest son of *Japhet*: and although from the time in which *Jenghiz Khan* subdued all Tartary and a great part of Asia, and made irruptions even into Europe, they have been known by the name of *Tartars*, to which that of *Mongols* or *Moguls* (of whom he was properly the chief) appeared inferior, nevertheless the Tartars preserve amongst themselves the name of *Turks*.

23. The Tartars began to acquire some importance in history, after the time of their subjugation by the *Mongols* under *Jenghiz Khan*, whose name is otherwise written *Genghis* or *Zingis*; but from the moment that their history excites attention, it ceases to be the history of a peculiar nation. Distributed under the banners and commanders of the *Mongols*, these enjoy with posterity the glory of their conquests, whilst the Tartars are constrained to lend their name to the devastations with which both nations every where marked the bloody progress of their armies. Shortly after the dissolution of the enormous empire of the *Mongols*, rose *Timur Leng* (otherwise called *Tamerlane* and *Timur Beg*), who was prince of *Kesch*, near *Samarcand*, and who having succeeded in reducing *Great Bukaria*, received, in 1369, the homage of the grandees, and was crowned at *Balkh* under the title of the Sovereign of the world. The history of his expeditions and conquests is well known. He reduced all the Tartar tribes under his control; subjected *Armenia*, *Georgia*, *Persia*, all the country as far Westward as the *Euphrates*, part of *Asia Minor*, and the Northern part of *Hindoostan*. He died at *Samarcand* in the year 1405, after which his empire fell into the greatest disorder. His successors lost, one after another, all the countries which *Tamerlane* had left them, with the exception of *Great Bukaria* and *Khorasan*; and even these were abandoned in 1498, by the last khan *Baber*, who, however, from being an outcast and a fugitive, became the founder of the famous *Mogul Empire* in *Hindoostan*. The dissolution of the country into smaller states, which parted again into smaller still, and were then reduced to subjection, at length brought about a division into stems and hordes, and consequently, a complete retrogradation from a state of comparative civilization to the condition of rude uncultivated man.

24. Since the time of *Timur*, the population and Political state of Tartary have undergone an entire change. It has been occupied, and many of the ancient inhabitants either subjected or expelled, by the *Uzbecks*, a people of the widely extended Turkish race, whose original seat has not been ascertained. They appear to have inhabited some of the more rugged and barren tracts to the North, and to have been attracted thence by the exuberant fertility of the plains on the banks of the *Oxus* and *Sihon*: and under this impulse they descended, as is usual amongst pastoral nations, not with an army, but with the whole mass of their people, to occupy the territories of the descendants of *Timur*. They have completely succeeded, and the whole population of *Bukaria*, and the countries round it, is now entirely *Uzbek*; they have even peopled *Balkh*, but here they have been compelled to pay

obedience to the king of Cabul. Subjugated in their conquered countries, and even forced from a great part of their old habitations, some few of the Tartar tribes have retained their independence. Amongst these may be mentioned the Kirgees or Kirghises, the Chivans, the Bukarians, the Karakalpaks, the Turcomans or Trukhmans, and some other races, which still form distinct states, and retain a kind of national liberty; but they exist in so feeble a state, that they are obliged to seek protection sometimes from one power and sometimes from another.

27. Bokhara, or Great Bukaria as it is also called, in contradistinction to Little Bukaria which is a country in Mongolia, occupies the South Eastern part of Independent Tartary, and is the most important of the kingdoms or states into which it is divided: its name is said to signify the *Country of learned men*. Its capital, Bokhara or Bogar, is situated on the Southern banks of the R. Zurufshaun, which is a tributary of the Jihon or Amoo: it is situated on a hill, surrounded by a ditch and an earthen wall, and contains about 70,000 inhabitants.

28. The houses of Bokhara are low, and built for the most part of mud; but the mosques and other public buildings, which are very numerous, are mostly of stone or brick. The inhabitants are characterized as being much more civilized than those of the neighbouring countries, and the city has long been celebrated all over the East for the study of Mahometan theology and law: it contains many colleges, some of which are said to be capable of accommodating 600 students. The population of Bokhara is composed of Uzbecks, Tartars, Jews, Afghans, Calmucks, and Hindoos. It was taken by Jenghis Khan in 1220, by Tamerlane in 1370, and by the Uzbecs, its present possessors, at the close of the last century.

29. To the Eastward of Bokhara lies the city of Samarcand, or Sumerkund as the name is also written, another famous seat of Mahometan learning: it stands on the left bank of the R. Kohuk, which unites its waters with those of the Zurufshaun, and thus flows into the Oxus. The population of Samarcand does not at present exceed 50,000 souls, but it is said to have amounted to more than three times that number in the days of Tamerlane.

30. The court of this famous Khan, and his numerous palaces, are said to have been surpassingly splendid: the magnificent halls painted with various colours, the hangings of silk embroidered with gold and silver, the tables of solid gold, and the display of rubies, emeralds, and other precious stones, formed a scene of the most dazzling character. The ambitious conqueror had made it a part of his system to bring from every place which he invaded, persons exercising the particular art for which that place was famous; so that there was scarcely a nation which had not representatives, or an employment which was not followed, at Samarcand. This once flourish-

has now, however, lost almost all its splendour, the seat of government having been long since removed to Bokhara: amongst the most valuable of its remains is the tomb of Timur, which is of jasper stone.

The two chief towns of Turkestan, properly so called, are Tashkent and Samarkand; the former contains about 40,000 inhabitants, but possesses no great interest. Chiva, or Khiva, is situated in the Western part of Independent Tartary, on the banks of the R. Oxus, about 150 miles above its mouth with the Aral Sea; it is the capital of a district of the same name, and is one of the two divisions of the country named Kharasm, the other being Turcomania or the country inhabited by the Turcomans properly so called.

The Northern part of Independent Tartary is inhabited by the powerful numerous tribe of the Kirgees, Kirghises, or Kirguises, as the name is usually written: they are divided into three hordes, called the Great Horde, and the Little Horde, and generally live a Nomadic life, though some of them cultivate land, and carry on a sort of barter with the Russians. At the commencement of the 17th century, they were in possession of a territory about the upper course of the R. Enisei, in Siberia, but about 1650 they were compelled to retire before the Russian arms into the steppe of the Tartars, with whom they partly incorporated themselves, but by far the greater number of them retained their independence, and still remained a distinct tribe. Those of them who dwell in the neighbourhood of the Russian frontiers acknowledge the supremacy of that power, by sending a deputy to take an oath of allegiance to it. Notwithstanding this, however, and in spite of a line of forts, which the Russian Government has built along the common limits between it and the Kirgees, and to compound for the safety of its subjects against the predatory incursions of these wandering hordes, by paying an annual tribute to the chiefs, they still acknowledge the supreme power.

CHAPTER XXIII.

CHINESE EMPIRE.

THE Chinese Empire contains two great components, viz. Mongolia and China Proper. MONGOLIA, or CHINESE TARTARY as it is also called, commands by far the largest and the least valuable portion of the Chinese Empire. It is bounded on the N. by Siberia; on the W. by Independent Tartary; on the S. by Cabul, Hindoostan, the Birman Empire, and China Proper; and on the E. by the inlets of the Pacific Ocean, known by the names of the Sea of Japan and the Sea of Tartary. It contains 2,808,000 square miles, or

a greater extent of country than the whole of Europe, but its population is not supposed to exceed 14,000,000 of souls.

2. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. Nearly the whole interior of this immense range of territory consists of level plain. Its Northern frontier is formed by the mountain-range of Sayansk or Yablonnoy, which extends from the limits of Independent Tartary to the shores of the Pacific Ocean: it is connected towards the W. with the chain of the Great Altai M^t., which traverses the Western part of Mongolia, and joins the Himalah near the springs of the rivers Ganges and Indus. The Southern part of Chinese Tartary, towards the Birman Empire and China Proper, is very elevated, and contains the sources of some of the longest rivers in Asia, as the Irrawaddy, the Cambodia R., the Yang-tse-Kiang, and the Hoang-Ho. The Eastern part of Mongolia is traversed by a ridge of mountains, which runs parallel with the shores of the Pacific Ocean, from the mouth of the R. Amoor to the extremity of the peninsula of Corea.

3. The only great river in Chinese Tartary is the Amoor or Sagalin as it is also called. It rises on the S. side of the Yablonnoy Mountains and runs thence with an Easterly course of 2,243 miles into the G. of Tartary opposite the I. of Sagalin: its chief tributaries are the Songari, Ousouri, and Schilka.

4. There are, however, several other small rivers, which either lose themselves in lakes or become absorbed in the desert: such are the R. of Guirak, the Yarkand R. which empties itself into L. Lok-Nor, the Oulia and Angus which run into L. Balkash. Besides these there are the upper courses of the rivers mentioned above as flowing through the Birman Empire and China Proper: those of the Indus and Tsanpoo (or Burrampooter), which flow through India: the Irtysh, Obi, Enisei, and Selenga, which traverse Siberia. There are several lakes in Chinese Tartary: the largest of these are those of Koko-Nor, Teikiri, and Palte, in Tibet, and those of Lok-Nor, Usakel, Balkash or Tenis, and Alakoul, towards the borders of Independent Tartary.

5. There are many extensive deserts in Mongolia. The largest of these is the vast Desert of Shamo or Cobi, which is more than a thousand miles in length, and stretches along the whole North Western borders of China Proper from Tibet to Pekin: it is covered for the most part with a short thin grass, which furnishes sustenance for cattle, and has no water excepting what is exceedingly brackish and bad. The Sea of Japan lies between the Japanese Islands and the coast of Mongolia, and is connected with the Pacific Ocean by the Strait of Corea: its N. part which runs up between the I. of

Sagalin and the mainland is called the Gulf of Tartary. The Whang-Hai or Yellow Sea is an inlet of the Pacific Ocean bounded on the N. and E. by Mongolia, and on the W. by China Proper: it contains the two gulfs of Leaotong and Petchelee. The chief capes of Chinese Tartary are, C. Elizabeth the Northernmost point of Sagalin; C. Corea, the S. extremity of the peninsula of the same name, to the W. of which lies the intricate group of islands called the Korean Archipelago; and Pt. Charlotte or the Regent's Head, opposite the N. promontory of China Proper.

6. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The religion of the Mogul Tartars is confined to Shamanism, or the worship of Fo. For their Lamas they entertain the most superstitious veneration, and though these are ignorant and licentious priests, they believe them to possess the gift of immortality, and of supernatural power such as calling down hail or rain, and to them they give the most valuable of their effects in return for prayers, which these priests go about reciting from tent to tent. The Mogul princes, or *Khans* as they are styled, are independent one of the other, though they are all subject to the emperor of China, whom they consider as the Grand Khan of the Tartars: tribute forms the utmost extent of their allegiance, but the Chinese, in order to secure their dominion, have found it necessary in many cases to pay, and not to receive this tribute. The emperor settles the limits of their respective territories, and appoints the laws according to which they govern their subjects. These tributary Khans have not the power of condemning their subjects to death, nor of depriving them of their possessions; a supreme tribunal having been established at Peking for the affairs of the Moguls, to which every individual may appeal from the sentence of his prince, who is obliged to appear in person whenever he is summoned.

7. It appears that many centuries ago the Mongols were divided into two leading nations, whose partition might probably be owing either to national circumstances, or to a natural separation by mountains, and afterwards kept up by the separate interests of their princes, or from a national enmity occasioned by perpetual dissensions. These two nations were brought to a union into one common state by the great Jenghiz Khan; but on the destruction of the monarchy which he had erected, they were separated again by the ancient feuds, and have ever since, to their mutual ruin, been engaged in almost perpetual hostilities. The Mongols, properly so called, compose the one, and the Doerben-Oiret the other of these nations. Doerben-Oiret means the *Quadruple alliance*, and is the common appellation of four principal races; the chief of these is that

of the Oeloets or Eluths, which in Western Asia and in Europe is known under the name of Calmucks. The frequent and bloody wars of the Mongols with China, rendered more fatal by their perpetual feuds, terminated at last in their complete subjugation by the latter Empire. At present they are not in a condition to liberate themselves from the yoke of their conquerors, although they have preserved their paternal seat, and ostensibly live under the government of their own hereditary princes.

8. The conquests of the Mongols (or Moguls) might be consigned to oblivion, if they had not produced in successive ages signal revolutions in the state of governments and of mankind. It is not easy to separate them from the people called Tartars, or to ascertain their first rise, and their early progress towards that vast empire which they ultimately acquired. The Tartars claim priority of origin, and affirm that they derived the name of Turks from Turk, the pretended eldest son of Japhet. They seem to have retained the name of Turks till the time of Jenghiz Khan, when it was succeeded by that of Tartars or Tatars; and this latter appellation was afterwards changed by some of their tribes into that of Mongols or Moguls, which name prevailed till the dominion of the people over the Southern provinces of Asia expired, when the former name was again resumed. Many contentions subsisted between the Mongols and Tartars for several successive ages. In the 9th century these nations appeared roaming about the frontiers of China and Corea: in the Western part of modern Mongolia were the Mongu, afterwards called Monkkos and Mongols; farther to the East, the Kitanes; and lastly, round Corea and the shores of the Pacific dwelled the Niudsches or Kin, and the Mandschu or Mantchoo, the present sovereigns of China. Of these, the Niudsches long maintained the supremacy, though each of the other tribes preserved its independence under the government of its own khans.

9. It was one of these petty princes who ruled over a Mongol tribe, and bore the name of Temudschin, that under the title of Jenghiz Khan became the founder of a new monarchy, and one of the most memorable ravagers of the world. He was only thirteen years old, when, on the death of his father, in 1176, he became the sovereign of his tribe. His career lasted twenty years, during which time he desolated the countries, and subjected the people from the limits of his own insignificant territory and from China to the farther Asia, and in Europe quite up to the shores of the R. Dniepr. After his conquests had arrived at their greatest extent, and whilst he was meditating the destruction of the empire of the Niudsches in China, death terminated all his projects, in the year 1227. Oktay, his son and successor, reduced the whole Northern part of China under his authority, made war upon the kings of Corea, and then determined, with an army of more than a million and a half of men, to overrun the world from one end to the other. With 600,000 of his troops he marched in person against the reigning dynasty in the Southern part of China, whilst the main body of his army, under the command of his son Kayuk, and his nephews Baaty and Menku, proceeded to the Westward, burning the towns in their progress, and massacring such of the inhabitants as resisted their savage invasion. They at last subdued all European Russia, with the exception of Novgorod, every where appointing viceroys, without expelling the native princes. Baaty Khan, with two great armies, ravaged Poland, Silesia, and Moravia; marched in person into Hungary, pillaged and murdered wherever he went, both here and in Sclavonia, Bosnia, Servia, and Bulgaria.

10. Whilst the Mongols were committing such horrors in Europe, and prosecuting the war against the Coreans and the Southern Chinese, they

overran Hkewise with their numerous hosts the hither Asia. They subjected all the country from the Caucasus to Bagdad, ravaged and subjugated several cities and districts of Asia Minor, where they rendered the sultan of Iconium their vassal, and at last made themselves masters of the Northern part of Syria. The death of Oktay saved Asia for a time, and Europe for ever. Menku, one of his successors, abolished the caliphate, and subjected the sultan of Iconium and Asia Minor, as far as the channel of Constantinople, to the Mongolian authority. The distance of the paramount sovereign from the other Mongolian states, which extended from the Pacific Ocean as far as the R. Dniepr and the Mediterranean Sea, accelerated by discord and ambition the dissolution of this enormous monarchy, which now separated into the following extensive states, viz. China; Iran or Persia as far as the hither Asia; Jagatai or Dshagatai; Kaptschak, or Southern European Russia; and Turan.

11. The next ambitious conqueror that occurs in the history of the Mongols, is Timur or Tamerlane, whose destructive career has been already briefly alluded to. The name of the Mogul Empire was applied to the dominions over which he and his immediate successors reigned, and in which India was not included; but this extensive appellation signifies, in a more restricted sense, that empire which was held by the descendants of Timur in Hindoostan and the Deccan. The conquest of Hindoostan was effected by sultan Baber, a descendant of Timur and Jenghiz Khan. This prince reigned over a kingdom composed generally of the provinces situated between Samarcand and the R. Indus. Being dispossessed of the Northern part of his dominions by the Usbecks, he determined to try his fortune in Hindoostan, whose distracted state under Ibrahim 2d., in 1516, encouraged his hopes of conquest. After having undertaken five distinct expeditions, he defeated the emperor of Delhi, and put an end to the dynasty of Lodi, *A. D.* 1525. He reigned only five years in Hindoostan, employing himself chiefly in the reduction of its Eastern provinces. It was in the person of Baber that the line of Tamerlane first mounted the throne of Hindoostan; and it was in that of Acbar, his grandson, that it was established. The conquest of their ancestor, about a century and a half before, had no share in effecting the present settlement: Baber was in reality the founder of the Mogul dynasty, and from this event Hindoostan derived the appellation of the Mogul Empire. This empire obtained its full measure of extent under Aurungzebe: in process of time, however, it became merely nominal, and the emperors were regarded of no political consequence, otherwise than as their names and persons were made use of by different parties to forward their own views.

12. The Mongul (or Mogul) nation is subdivided into a multitude of tribes all speaking the same language, but each restricted within certain limits beyond which they cannot pass without being considered to commit an act of hostility. They are said to have neither towns, villages, nor houses, but to form themselves into wandering hordes, and to live under plain tents, which they transport from one place to another, according to the different seasons or the wants of their flocks. The present capital of Chinese Tartary (or Mongolia) is Guinnak, situated

in the South Western part of the country, on the border of Little Bukaria and Little Tibet. The old metropolis of the Mongols was Karakum, or Erdenitsha as it is also called, which now lies in ruins, near one of the sources of the R. Selenga, about 200 miles distant from the frontiers of Siberia.

13. On the banks of the R. Amoor or Sagalin there are many petty and villages but no towns of any consequence. The I. of Sagalin, called Tchoka by the natives, and Oku-Jesso or Upper Jesso by the Japanese, lies off the North Eastern extremity of Mongolia, from which it is separated by a very narrow strait: it has a North and South direction, about 530 miles long, and on an average about 40 miles broad. It is separated from the I. of Jesso, which lies to the S. of it, by a narrow channel called the Strait of La Perouse. The Mantchoo Tartars, Japanese, Russians, have all colonies on this island. The South Eastern part of Mongolia is occupied by the kingdom of Corea, the inhabitants of which bear great affinity, in their language, religion, and manners, to the Chinese. It is a large peninsula, jutting out into the Pacific Ocean between China and the Japanese Islands, and is governed by a sovereign, who pays an annual tribute to the Chinese Emperor: its capital, Kingkitao, is situated near the middle of the country.

14. The Songar Calmucks are a powerful and numerous tribe of Mongolians, cantoned in the North Western part of Chinese Tartary. Below them is the country called Little Bukaria, the capital of which is Yarkand, situated on a river of the same name, which flows into the Lake of Lokno. Other chief towns are Cashgar, Koten, Turfan, and Chamil. Little Tibet, called Lahdack as it is also called, lies immediately below Little Bukaria, on the upper course of the Indus, on the frontiers of Independent Tartary, the kingdom of Cabul; it is governed by a Raja, whose submission to the Chinese government is little more than nominal: the inhabitants, who are mostly Buddhists, profess a high respect for the Grand Lama of Tibet. Two chief towns are Leli or Lahdack and Gortope, both of which stand on the banks of the Indus, the former being the capital, and lying to the North of Gortope, towards the limits of Little Bukaria and Little Tibet. Guinnak, which has been already mentioned as the modern capital of Chinese Tartary.

15. Tibet occupies the Southernmost part of Mongolia, from the sources of the Indus and Ganges to those of the Yang-tse-Kiang and Hoang-Ho: it confines to the South with Hindoostan, the Birman Empire, and China Proper, which last also bounds it on the East. At present the whole of this territory is nominally subject to the emperor of China, who sends a Viceroy, to whose care all the really important matters of government are virtually confided, and who resides at Lassa, the capital of the whole country.

16. The rank of this Viceroy is next to that of the Grand Lama, but in efficient power he is far superior to them both.

Lamas are the priests of the sect of Buddha in Tibet and the adjacent territories, and are monks, who, at least nominally, have forsaken the pleasures of the world: they altogether reject the doctrine of castes, a proselyte of any nation being allowed to enter their order. They consider themselves the adherents of Sakya Gamba, who is reputed to have come from India about the commencement of our era, and has ever since resided at Lassa, where he enjoys perpetual youth: but besides this individual there are many other personages, who are considered to be incarnations of different Buddhas. The Grand or Dalai Lama, who resides at Lassa, is regarded by his worshippers as an incarnation of the divinity in a human form, on the dissolution of which he enters a new one after a stated period of about three years, and becoming thus revealed to the inhabitants of the earth, resumes his dominant functions. The Grand Lama always re-appears as an only child, whose father is secretly immolated immediately after his son's recognition: but notwithstanding this fatal result, the honour of being father to the Lama is eagerly sought after, that there never has been any instance of a Lama's incarnation except in a rich family.

17. The ritual or ceremonial worship of the Tibetians is all system and order, and thus differs essentially from that of the Brahminical Hindoos. A sovereign Lama, immaculate, immortal, omnipresent, and omniscient, is placed at the summit of their fabric; the Hindoos, on the contrary, acknowledge no supreme authority. This Lama is esteemed the viceroy of the deity, and he is also the centre of a civil government, which derives its chief influence from his authority. But the evils which might be expected to arise from such a concentration of power, are altogether neutralized by the careful policy of the Chinese government, and by the complete seclusion of the Grand Lama from all worldly matters; nothing of any importance being done without full consultation with the viceroy of the emperor, and the high-priest only appearing once annually, at the commencement of the new year, when he repairs to the great temple to perform public worship.

18. Lassa or Lehassa, the capital of Tibet, called also Ochoong by the Chinese, is situated nearly in the centre of the country, and about 30 miles above the Northern banks of the R. Burrampooter, Brahmaputra, or Tsanpoo: it is of an oval form, nearly four miles long by one broad. It is chiefly remarkable for the grand temple contained in it, which consists of an extensive range of buildings, forming the sanctuaries of the various idols worshipped by the Tibetians, each having its own peculiar place of adoration, supplied with appropriate ornaments. The population of Lassa is estimated to be about 20,000. The personal residence of the Grand Lama is at Patela, about seven miles distant from Lassa, where 170 priests of the first rank, devoted to prayer and the performance of never-ending ceremonies, reside with him in the palace.

19. CHINA PROPER is bounded on the N. and W. by Mongolia; on the S. by the Birman Empire, and the kingdoms of Laos and Tonkin, belonging to the empire of Annam: and on the E. by the Pacific Ocean. It contains 954,300 square miles, and about 143,100,000 inhabitants. Its population, however, has been a subject of much dispute and calculation, and has been variously estimated: the Chinese themselves having magnified the number of inhabitants into 333,000,000.

The whole Chinese Empire contains a superficial extent of about 3,782,300 square miles, and an estimated population of about 157,100,000 souls.

20. The details upon which the native statement of the population of China, has been founded, when compared with a few others which have been tolerably well authenticated, are so inconsistent, as to furnish ample proof of its very gross exaggeration: indeed, the glaring falsehoods which have been told to the members of the British embassies by the principal lords at court, as well as by the emperor himself, and the entire disregard of truth universally found to prevail from the throne to the meanest subject, have effectually prevented the least reliance from being placed on any information procured solely from the Chinese. China Proper is called by the natives Chonkou, i. e. *The Empire of the Centre of the Middle*: the people of Cochin China and Siam (as well as the Arabs) call it *Chin*, whence the name of China by which we know it. The appellation *Cathay* or *Khitai*, so celebrated in the middle ages, is that by which it is generally distinguished by the Monguls, the Russians, and many of the Eastern nations, having been derived from the Khitans, who formerly occupied the Northern provinces of the empire: the Mantchoo Tartars call it *Nicoucourou*, and the Japanese, *Thau*.

21. The Chinese as a nation pretend to an antiquity beyond all credibility, carrying their history back many millions of years before the period assigned by the Scriptures to the creation of the world, and relating wonders concerning the founders of their nation of the most extravagant and ludicrous nature. The writings, however, wherein these assertions are found, appear to have been introduced from India, with other mythological fables, by the disciples of Fo, and are in a manner capable of being distinguished from the actual history of the country, which is traced to a period some centuries before our own era. The most interesting particulars of the Chinese history are connected with the incursions of the Tartars, who under Jenghiz Khan, in the 11th century, spread their desolations over the whole Northern part of the country; the Mongol chief had even entertained the monstrous project of extirpating the whole race of agriculturists, and turning all China into pasture for foraging his cavalry. The successors of this ambitious and successful conqueror were eventually supplanted by a race of Chinese princes, known as the dynasty of the Ming; and the power of these last was, in its turn, put an end to, in the beginning of the 17th century, by the Mantchoo Tartars; these last reduced the whole empire to subjection, and have ever since continued to hold the sovereignty of it, though by transferring the seat of empire to Peking, and by adopting the Chinese language, manners, and customs, Tartary seems to be rather incorporated with China, than the conqueror of it.

22. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. The mountains of China form two immense chains, which detach themselves from the lofty range already noticed in Tibet, and trend E. to the shores of the Pacific Ocean. The more Northern one of these, called Pe-ling, enters China Proper on the borders of the provinces Shensee and Setchuen, and divides the courses of the two great rivers Hoang-Ho and Yang-tse-Kiang. The Southern chain,

called Nan-ling, enters China Proper between the Yang-tse-Kiang and Cambodia rivers, and intersects the province of Yunnan. On the borders of Quangsee it divides into two arms, the Southern one of which, called Ma-tian-ling, traverses this province and that of Canton, and terminates in the promontory of Louey-tcheow opposite the I. of Hainan: the Northern arm, called Tsoun-ling, runs through the provinces Koeitchoo, Kiangsee, &c., and terminates on the Pacific at the mouth of the R. Yang-tse-Kiang.

23. Besides these two great chains, there are several other lofty ridges of mountains which appear to connect them. Such are those of Mei-ling in the province of Kiang-see; Thai in Shantung; Ho in Canton; Hoa and Heng in Shansee; Soung in Honan; Yan near Pekin; and Siampi, which form the N.E. frontier and are so celebrated in the history of the Mantchoo-Tartars.

24. The two principal rivers of China Proper are the Yang-tse-Kiang and the Hoang-Ho, which both rise in the mountains of Tibet, and flow Eastward into the N. Pacific Ocean. Of these the Hoang-Ho, called also the Whang-Hai and Yellow R., is the more Northern, it is 2,900 miles long, and flows into the Whang-Hai or Yellow Sea, which has derived its name from it. The Yang-tse-Kiang, flows farther Southward, and enters the Pacific Ocean a little below the city of Nankin; it is 2,237 miles long, being the longest river in the Eastern World, and only inferior to the Mississippi in America: hence, prior to the discovery of the latter river, its native name *First born of Ocean* remained undisputed.

25. The principal tributaries of the Yang-tse Kiang are, the Mitschou running from Tibet; the Yalong and Mahou from Koko-nor; the Kia-lin in Shansee; the Han in Setchuen; the Heng in Houquang; and the Kan in Kiangsee. Besides the Yang-tse-Kiang and Hoang-Ho there are many rivers which though not all considerable, deserve to be mentioned. The chief of these are the Payho or R. of Pekin, in the province of Petchelees; the Tatcin in Shantung; the Tsientang in Tchekiang; the Si in Fokien; the Tong, Yang, Lien, Kin, and Ngannam, in the neighbourhood of Canton; and the Sangkoi and Maykaung in Yunnan.

26. There are several inland seas in China Proper. The most important of these are, L. Tong-ting-Hou in the province of Houquang and joining the R. Yang-tse-Kiang; L. Po-yang-Hou, connected with the same river in the province of Kiangsee; L. Taihou in the province of Tchekiang, between the Yang-tse-Kiang and the ocean; and L. Hong-tse-fou, which runs into the Yellow R. not far from its mouth, in the province of Kiangnan.—China is likewise remarkable for many canals, which are said to exceed in number

those of every other country : there is not a province without one, but the largest and most famous of them all is the Imperial Canal, which extends from N. to S. nearly through the whole empire.

27. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. China appears to be the only absolute government, in which there is no established religion connected with the state; there being three principal professions, that of Confucius, that of the Taotze, and that of Buddha. The government of China is patriarchal. The emperor is absolute, but the examples of outrageous tyranny are comparatively rare, as he is taught to consider his subjects as his children and not as his slaves. Hence he takes the title of Great Father of his people; and by his being thus placed out of the reach of any earthly control, he is supposed to be also above earthly descent, and therefore, as a natural consequence, styles himself the Sole Ruler of the world and the Son of heaven, and his territory the Celestial Empire. His commands are indisputable, and his words sacred; he seldom shows himself to the people, and is never spoken to but on the knees.

28. Confucius (or Kongfutsse) was born about five centuries before the Christian era: he was accordingly a contemporary with Pythagoras, and flourished at a period prior to that in which Socrates rose to celebrity. By his sage counsels, his moral doctrine, and his exemplary conduct, he obtained an immortal name as the reformer of his country: after his death, his name was held in the highest veneration; and his doctrine is still regarded amongst the Chinese, as the basis of all moral and political wisdom. He condemned the idolatry which he found existing amongst his countrymen, and endeavoured to introduce a purer form of religion. He did not attempt to dive into the impenetrable secrets of nature, nor bewilder himself in abstruse researches on the essence of a first cause, the origin of good and evil, and other subjects which seem beyond the limits of the human mind. He maintained that the Deity was the most pure and perfect principle, and fountain of all things; that he is independent and almighty, and watches over the government of the universe, so that no event can happen but by his command; that our most secret thoughts are open to his view; that he is holy without partiality, and of such boundless goodness and justice, that he cannot possibly permit virtue to go unrewarded, or vice unpunished. Confucius likewise taught his disciples to believe that the human body was composed of two principles; the one light, invisible, and ascending, the other gross, visible, and descending: and that the separation of these principles causes the death of man, when the light part ascends into the air, and the gross part sinks into the earth. The word death never entered into the philosophy of Confucius, nor is it even now employed by the Chinese, who describe such an event by saying a man has returned to his family.

29. Confucius likewise asserted, that the distance between the all-creative power and the people is so immeasurably great, that the king, as high priest, *can alone offer welcome sacrifices*; and that this power is best satisfied when

forms the moral duties of life, which consist chiefly in filial piety and obedience to the will of the sovereign. He maintained that neglected this duty, would, after death, be deprived of visiting the ancestors, and of the pleasure arising from the homage bestowed by dependants; and hence this superstitious belief has peopled almost every mountain, and river, with good and evil spirits. Neither Confucius, nor any of his disciples attached the idea of a personal being to the deity, or does it seem ever to have entered into their minds to represent the deity under any image or personification. They considered the sun, stars, and elements, with the azure firmament, as the creative and active powers, the immediate agents of the Deity, and inseparably connected with him; and they offered adoration to these agents, united in *Li Tien*, i. e. Heaven. Confucius appears to have had a strong propensity for predicting events by certain mystical lines, by which he sought to foretell occurrences that would take place for a considerable time: this species of superstition has much increased of late years among his followers, who now make use of all kinds of divination to obtain insight into futurity. The sect of Confucius is chiefly confined to the empire, the emperor himself being at the head of it; they have no temples, and appear to be far more superstitious than religious.

Some time after the death of Confucius sprang up the religion of *Lo*, i. e. *Sons of Immortals*: it was established by *Laokung*, who, having travelled into Tibet, became acquainted with the worship of the *Lama*, which he thought would suit his countrymen. He maintained, however, that to live at ease and make himself happy, were the chief duties of man. The doctrine of immortality, as a branch of the metempsychosis, was converted by *Laokung* into the art of producing a renovation of the faculties in the same body, by the means of certain preparations from the three kingdoms of nature. The infatuated people flew with avidity to the fountain of life, and princes sought after the draughts which would render them immortal. The priests of the sect devoted themselves to a state of celibacy, and associated in convents; here they practised astrology, necromancy, and all manner of incantations, which have been multiplied to a still more ridiculous extent by the present race of the

Their temples are crowded with large and monstrous figures, made of stone, and baked clay, daubed over with paint or varnish, and gilded.—About the year 65 of our era, the sect of *Fo* was introduced into China from Hindoostan. The name was derived from the *Shou*, which has been contracted into that of *Fo*: it is supposed to be the same with *Boodh*, or *Buddha*, the chief tenets being those of *Madhwa*, amongst which is the metempsychosis, or transition of souls from one animal to another: the priests are denominated *bontes*.

All places of honour and profit in China are in the immediate gift of the emperor, and he has absolute power over the lives and properties of all his subjects. The right of making peace or war belongs to him, as does also that of appointing his successor, whom he may select either from the royal family, or amongst his other subjects. To assist the emperor in the weighty affairs of the empire, the constitution has assigned him two councils; one, called the *Imperial* council, is composed of his six principal ministers; the other, the *Ordinary* council, consists entirely of princes of the blood. For the administration of the affairs of government there are six boards or departments, the members of which resolve upon, recommend, and report to the emperor, all matters belonging to their separate jurisdictions, who, with the sanction of his council, confirms, amends, or rejects their decrees. Sub-

Provinces.

Chief Towns.

Quangtung, or Canton (including the I. of Hainan)	Canton, or Quangtcheoufou.
Quangsee	Koueilingfou.
Koeitchoo	Koeiyangfou.
Yunnan	Yunnanfou.

35. The Great Wall of China is supposed to have been built about 200 years before the Christian era, for the purpose of defending the country against the inroads of the neighbouring predatory Nomadic hordes. It extends along the whole of the Northern, and part of the eastern frontier, over rivers and lofty ranges of mountains, for a distance of nearly 1,500 miles. It is about 20 feet high in the plains, but not more than 15 or 20 feet on the summits of the mountain-ridges; the top is flat, paved with stone, and so broad that a carriage can drive along it without any danger or difficulty.

36. Pekin or Peking, the capital of the province of Chelee, and the metropolis of the whole Chinese Empire, is situated in the Northernmost part of the country, about 30 miles from the great wall of China. It stands at a short distance to the left of the great river called the Yangtze Hai or Hoang Ho. The city is of a square form, about 15 miles in circumference, and, according to Chinese ideas, is strongly fortified: it is divided into two parts, the one inhabited by Tartars, and the other by Chinese, each being surrounded by a wall. The emperor of China resides at Pekin, and his palace stands in the middle of the Tartar city. The population of the whole city has been stated to amount to three millions, though there are not wanting accounts which raise it to five times that number: but according to the most recent and authenticated statements, it does not exceed 300,000.

37. Pekin is mentioned by the early travellers of the 13th and 14th centuries under the name of Cambalu, which the Tartar monarchs had then recently built near the Chinese city of Taydu: the natives likewise call it *Ughian*. The name Peking signifies *the Northern Court*, and was applied to the city to distinguish it from Nanking or *the Southern Court*, which was the residence of the emperor of China prior to the Mantchoo dynasty ending the throne. The wall of the Tartar city is more than 60 feet high, and so broad that it is patrolled by the cavalry; it rises by stages, like

a pyramid, and is surmounted by spacious towers, a bowshot or distant from each other, which are large enough to contain bodies in case of necessity. The city has nine gates, which are lofty arched, but not ornamented; and over them are large pavilion-roof divided into nine stories, each having several apertures or port-lower story forms a large hall, for the use of the soldiers or of quit guard, and those appointed to relieve them. The streets of straight, and the principal ones tolerably wide; the houses are generally surrounded by a wall six or seven feet high, within which a whole family of three generations, with their respective wives and will frequently be found. Although the Chinese architecture has in balance to that of Europe, the imperial palace of Pekin does not fascinate the beholders by its extent, its grandeur, and the regular disposition of its apartments: its exterior circumference is reckoned a league and a half, which is probably a great exaggeration. It presents a large assembly of vast buildings, extensive courts, and magnificent gardens, and is surrounded on all sides by a double wall: the intervening space being occupied by barracks belonging to the officers of the court, eunuchs, and by different trades.

38. Nankin or Nanking, the capital of the province of Kiangnan, is situated nearly midway down the north side of China, about 120 miles from the mouth of the Yangtsekiang, a little to the right of which it stands. It is about 14 miles in circumference, and has a very irregular figure, owing to the mountains by which it is surrounded: but more than a third of the city is now deserted, and the remainder is by no means well peopled. It was formerly the imperial city, for this reason it was called Nanking, i. e. *the Southern Capital*. The population of Nankin has been as much exaggerated as that of Pekin, having been frequently stated at two, and three millions; it is now, however, generally believed not to exceed 600,000.

39. Since the six grand tribunals have been transferred to Pekin, the city is called Kiangning in all the public acts. It is said to have been one of the most beautiful and flourishing cities in the world, but has lost all its ancient splendour, though it is stated to be still the first city of the empire with regard to the learned men it produces, and those manufactures for which the country has been so long famous. It has formerly a magnificent palace, which was destroyed by the Manchus; a famous observatory, at present neglected; temples, tombs of the emperors, and other superb monuments, of which nothing remains but the ruins. The most famous amongst its temples is that called the Tower, built A. D. 1411. It is a pagoda of octagonal form, 20 feet high, and divided into nine stories, by plain boards within and without, and small projections covered with green varnished tiles; it is made of 884 steps, and is surmounted by a large ball, which the Chinese believe to be of solid gold, though it is generally suspected to be only gilt.

40. Canton, or Quangtcheoufou as it is called, is situated on the south coast of China, about 120 miles from the mouth of the Yangtsekiang, and is one of the most important cities in the empire.

permission to establish a factory at Nangasaki, where they carried on a very profitable trade. Their missionaries likewise resorted thither with the view of converting the natives, and were permitted for some time to proceed without molestation; but the government suspecting that these foreigners were carrying on a plan for the subversion of the whole empire, began a serious persecution against them, which ended in the extermination of all the converts, and the total exclusion of the Portuguese from the whole of Japan. They were succeeded by the Dutch, who, stipulating that they would not meddle with the religion or government of the State, were allowed to establish a factory on the island of Firando, and eventually at Nangasaki. The restrictions, however, under which they are allowed to trade, have been repeatedly multiplied, that their intercourse with the Japanese is almost nugatory, and would be probably discontinued, were it not from a jealousy of other European nations.

46. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. The general aspect of the Japanese Islands is rugged and irregular, bristling with mountains, rocks, and hills. The coast is rocky and precipitous, whilst the interior of the empire is frequently desolated by volcanoes and earthquakes. The great island of Nipon is traversed in many directions by lofty and inaccessible ranges. In its S. E. part near Jedo is the mountain of Fusi, the summit of which is covered with perpetual snow and is considered the most elevated in the empire. In the N. part of the island are the ranges of Tasagura, Mottojama, and Oraxi; these form the upper part of a chain which continues trending through the whole extent of Nipon, with more or less interruption, till it terminates in the S. opposite the islands Sikoke and Kiusiu.

47. The rivers of Japan are very numerous, but owing to the narrowness of the islands, their courses are short, though at the same time very impetuous. Amongst the chief of those in Nipon we may mention the Jedogawa, or river of Osaka; the Toniac, or river of Jeddo; the Meaco; the Ojingawa; and the Fusigawa. There are likewise many considerable lakes in the empire, amongst which that of Oitz near the town of Meaco is deserving of mention: it is said to be 50 leagues in circumference, and its delightful banks have been rendered sacred by the erection of more than 3,000 pagodas. The industry of the Japanese has led them to cut several canals in Nipon, but owing to the water-communication along its numerous rivers, they are less frequently met with than in China.

48. The Strait of La Perouse separates the islands of Sagalin and Jesso (or Matsmai); the St. of Matsmai those of Jesso and Nipon; the St. of Corea those of Nipon and Kiusiu from the mainland of Chinese Tartary. The chief gulfs in the I. of Jesso are the G. of

Strongonov and Volcano Bay : in Nipon are, the gulfs of Jedo, Totska, Totomina, Owari, Osaka, and Noto : in Kiuisu are, those of Simabara and Omura. The chief capes of Nipon are, C. Sangar and C. Nambu its Northern promontories ; C. de Kennis and C. Awa on the East ; C. Noto and C. Nankaba on the West.

49. RELIGION. The religion of the Japanese is polytheism, intermixed with an acknowledgment of the Supreme Creator : their two principal sects are those of Sinto and Budsdo. The first of these acknowledges a supreme being far superior to the worship of man, and they therefore adore the inferior deities as mediators. The sect of Budsdo is the same with that of Buddha or Boodh, and has been imported from Hindoostan : its tenets, passing through China and Corea, have been blended with foreign maxims, but the doctrine of the metempsychosis remains.

50. The sect of Sinto believe that the souls of the virtuous have a place assigned them immediately under heaven, while those of the wicked wander in the air till they expiate their offences : they abstain from animal food, detest bloodshed, and will not touch any dead body. Though they hold it unnecessary on any occasion to pray to the gods (whom they call *Sin* or *Kami*) because they know all things, yet they have both temples and certain stated holydays. In these temples there is no visible idol representing the supreme invisible being, but they sometimes keep a little image in a box, which represents some inferior deity to whom the temple is consecrated. In the centre of the temple is often placed a large mirror of well-polished metal, designed to remind such as come to worship, that in like manner as their personal blemishes are faithfully portrayed in the mirror, so do the great blemishes and evil qualities of their hearts lie open and exposed to the all-searching eyes of the immortal gods. The Dairi is the head of the Sinto religion, and has the appointment of its principal functionaries : the priests are secular and monastic, being supported either by the contributions of the faithful or by pious foundations : there are likewise several orders of monks and nuns. The philosophy of the Japanese moralists, called Shuto, resembles the Epicurean, though it is mixed up with the tenet of Confucius, that a virtuous life is the purest source of pleasure. This sect admits a soul of the world, but does not allow infinite gods, temples, or religious forms.

51. GOVERNMENT. The government of Japan was formerly in the hands of a spiritual ruler, called the Dairi, who received the willing homage of his subjects, being viewed by them almost as a divinity. This sacred character, however, obliged him to entrust the command of the army to generals, whose exalted situation enabled

them gradually to concentrate the actual management of the state in their office. At last, one of them, in the 16th century, seized upon the whole secular power, under the name of Cubo Sama, and left to the Dairi only the shadow of dominion. But the ancient ruler is looked upon by the Japanese people with such superstitious reverence, that the usurper has never dared either to dethrone him or materially to diminish his outward dignity.

52. The Dairi therefore still maintains a court, which displays considerable pomp, and consists of all the descendants of the imperial blood, amounting to several thousands, who consider themselves as the first personages in the empire, and all the rest of their countrymen as impure and unholy. The person of the spiritual sovereign is held so sacred, that it is beneath his dignity to touch the ground with his foot, and to allow the sun to shine upon him. He resides at Meaco, and his court is of great benefit to the empire, being the great theatre for the cultivation of science, literature, and all the elegant arts. The Cubo Sama, or secular emperor, resides at Jeddo, and is surrounded with all the pomp which the country can afford him. His power is altogether despotic, the people not being admitted to the least share in the government. The different districts of the empire are under the sway of hereditary princes and chiefs, who form a species of feudal aristocracy. During a considerable part of the year they are obliged to reside at the capital with all their military train, and when they are absent, to leave their children as hostages in the hands of the sovereign. Notwithstanding this, they enjoy an authority almost uncontrolled within their own districts, and are often led to cherish feelings of independence and revenge.

53. Nipon or Niphon is by far the largest of the Japanese islands. Its chief city, and the metropolis of the whole empire, is Jedo, Jeddo, or Yeddo, as it is variously written: it is situated on the Eastern coast of the island, on a bay of the same name, and at the mouth of the little R. Toniac. It is about 16 miles in circuit, and has no walls, but is reckoned one of the most magnificent cities in all Asia. The population of Jedo is estimated at 1,000,000 souls.

54. Besides the usual accompaniments of a capital, Jedo contains many splendid palaces belonging to the hereditary princes and chiefs of the empire, which though only built of wood, and one story high, are very elegantly ornamented, and are surrounded with large courts and stately gates. The palace of the emperor resembles a great fortified city, being surrounded with walls and ditches, and containing several buildings which have the appearance of castles. The outer part is composed of streets, containing many palaces, in which reside the princes of the blood, the ministers, and other public functionaries. In the centre stands the emperor's palace, the body of it being only one story high, but adorned with a very lofty square tower

Unlike all other Japanese structures, it is built of freestone, and is surrounded by a wall of the same material.

55. Meaco, formerly the metropolis of the empire, and still the ecclesiastical capital, is situated on a river of the same name, near the Southern extremity of Nipon, some distance to the W. of Jedo. In its greatest prosperity it appears to have been nearly twenty miles in circuit, but a large portion of this space is now unoccupied, having been converted into gardens and cultivated fields: some of the temples are of extraordinary magnificence, and the imperial palace is a city of itself. Notwithstanding its decline, Meaco is still the centre of all the literature and science of the country, and the place where the coin of the empire is struck: it is likewise the seat of some of the finest manufactures in the country, and one of the grand storehouses of Japanese commerce. Its population is said not to exceed 530,000.

56. The island of Jesso or Matsmai lies to the N. of Nipon, and is separated from it by a narrow strait, called the St. of Matsmai: another narrow strait, already described as the St. of La Perouse, interposes on the North between it and the I. of Sagalin. The town of Matsmai contains about 50,000 inhabitants; it is well fortified, and is situated in the Southernmost part of the island on the shores of the strait to which it has communicated its name. A few of the Kurile Islands, or that chain extending from Jesso to the Southernmost point of Kamtschatka, likewise belong to Japan.

57. The island of Sikoke, Sikokf, or Xicoco, as it is variously called, lies to the S. of Nipon, from which, as well as from Kiusiu, it is separated by a narrow strait: it is almost inaccessible, and unknown to Europeans. Kiusiu, known also by the name of Ximo, is the Southernmost and Westernmost of the four great Japanese islands, and is remarkable as the only part of the whole empire into which Europeans can procure admission. This privilege is confined to the Dutch, who send a trading ship annually to Nangasaki, the capital of the island: Firando, where they built their first factory, is an islet off the N. W. extremity of Kiusiu, and opposite Corea. The city of Nangasaki is built on the Western coast of the island; it is large, tolerably well defended, and very populous, but the jealousy of the native government prevents strangers from seeing little more than its exterior. Fatsisio is a small barren island about 120 miles distant from the Eastern coast of Nipon, and is remarkable as the place whither the emperor of Japan banishes such of the grandees as have incurred his displeasure, employing them there in the manufacture of silk and gold brocade.

CHAPTER XXIV.

CONTINENT OF AFRICA.

1. AFRICA is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean Sea, on the W. and S. by the Atlantic Ocean, on the East by the Indian Ocean and the Red Sea: it is separated from Asia by the narrow Isthmus of Suez, which is only 60 miles across. Though Africa is more than three times as large as all Europe, it is by far less important; from its lying so immediately under the sun, the maritime parts only are inhabited, the inland country being a vast sandy desert. There is no cultivation, except in the immediate vicinity of a river or spring, all the rest being one wide tract of utter desolation: and hence, these cultivated places appearing like islands (or *oases*) in the great desert, caused some of the ancients to compare the whole continent to a Panther's skin, dotted, as it were, with spots of fertility, surrounded by a brown and burning desert.

2. Amongst the principal mountains of Africa we may mention Mt. Atlas or Tedla, which runs through the whole North Western part of the continent from the coast opposite the Canary Islands to Tunis and Cape Bon: it has many arms, the Southernmost of which serve as the boundaries between the cultivated provinces and the great Desert of Sahara. This enormous desert extends from the Atlantic to the Nile, and nearly from the Mediterranean Sea to the banks of the River Nigir, being about 2,600 miles long, and 1,100 broad. To the East of Mt. Atlas is the range now called Soudah and Black Harutsh, which partly forms the boundary between Tripoli and Fezzan.

3. The valley of the Nile is inclosed by two ranges of mountains, the Western of which is called the Libyan range, and the Eastern Gebel Mokattem. Between the latter and the Red Sea there is a much more elevated chain, which furnished the kings of Egypt not only

very valuable marble, but with precious stones, and gold. The land gradually becomes more high as we ascend the Nile; at the sources of which, it attains such a great elevation, that the ancients fancied it touched, and supported, the heavens; hence it has derived its appellation of Gebel Komri, i. e. *Mountains of the Moon*. It is this immense chain which is supposed completely to intersect the continent, from the Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb to the mouth of the Gambia: its Western part, towards the source of the Niger is called Kong. There is another chain of mountains of considerable elevation, which extends along the Eastern and Southern coasts of Africa, with little interruption, from C. Guardafui to the C. of Good Hope: opposite to Madagascar it is called the Mountains of Lupata, and has been described by some, whimsically enough, as the *Spine of the World*.

4. The elevation of these, and some other great mountains of Africa, above the level of the sea, will be found in the following table: (193W)

SYNOPTICAL TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS OF AFRICA.

	Feet.		Feet.
Addua M ^a , in Abyssinia	3,441	Moon, M ^a , of the	15,000
Aphroune M ^a , in Algiers	5,000	Nieuwveldt, C. of Good	
Atlas, M ^a , (highest pt.)	12,240	Hope	10,000
Cameroons M ^a , in Biafra	12,000	Pico, Peak of, Azores I.	7,225
Clarence M ^a , in Fernando		Ponce M ^a , Mauritius I.	2,700
Po. I.	10,700	Roggeveld, C. of Good	
Compasberg, Cape of Good		Hope	8,000
Hope	9,000	Ruivo, Pico, Madeira I.	3,100
Devil's Hill, D ^o .	3,215	Salaz M ^a , Bombon I.	9,000
Diana's Peak, in St. Helena	2,692	Sennaar, City of	6,000
Dippebahar M ^a , in Abyssinia	4,427	Sierra Leone, Sugar Leaf	2,000
Dixan M ^a , in Do.	4,664	of	
Gojam M ^a , in Do.	14,000	Snowberg, C. of Good	10,000
Kong, M ^a , of	20,000	Hope	
Lamalmou, M ^a , in Abyssinia	6,107	Soudah M ^a , or Black Haratsh	6,000
Lion's Head, Cape of Good Hope	2,160	Table M ^a , C. of Good	2,562
Lion's Rump, D ^o .	1,143	Hope	
Lupata, M ^a , of	10,000	Teneriffe, Peak of, Canary I.	12,554
Madagascar (highest pt. in)	11,000	Toreberg, C. of Good	1,000
		Hope	
		Tristand'Acunha I. (highest pt.)	6,400

5. **STATES OF AFRICA.** The modern divisions of Africa are altered but little from those of the ancients, so far as they were acquainted with the continent. In its N. W. extremity is the kingdom of Morocco, composed of the two states Morocco and Fez, the latter of which lies opposite to Spain; its chief cities are Morocco, Sallee, Fez, Tangier, and Tetuan. To the E. of Morocco is the State of Algiers, corresponding with the ancient Kingdom of Numidia: its chief cities are Tremezen, Oran, Algiers, Bujeya, Cosantina, and Bona. Farther East, and extending to the extremity of the G. of Cables or Little Syrtis, lies the State of Tunis; its chief cities are Bizerta, Tunis, Hammamet, Africa, and Cables. Beyond this, lying along the shore of the Mediterranean, we meet with the extensive State of Tripoli; its most important cities are Tripoli, Mesurata, and Zafferan. To the S. of Tripoli is the Kingdom of Fezzan, the metropolis of which is Mourzouk. Barca, which lies between Tripoli and the frontiers of Egypt, is dependant upon the former state; its principal towns are Bengazi, Barca, and Derna.

6. Egypt extends to the Isthmus of Suez, the common boundary between Africa and Asia; it includes the Valley of the Nile from the Mediterranean to the Cataract of Es-Souan, being bounded on the E. by the Red Sea, and on the W. by the Libyan Desert. It is subdivided into three parts: the Northern is called Bahri or Lower Egypt; the Central, Vostani or Middle Egypt; and the Southern, Said or Upper Egypt. Its principal cities are, in Lower Egypt, Alexandria, Rosetta, Damietta, and Cairo; in Central Egypt, Behenese, Melawi, and Es-Siout; in Upper Egypt, Ghouft, Esneh, and Es-Souan. To the South of Egypt lies Nubia, consisting of several little governments, by far the most important of which is Sennaar; its chief towns are Ibrim, Dongola, Chandi, and Sennaar. Below this again, is the Kingdom of Abyssinia, the chief towns of which are Gondar, Shire, and Zeyla.

7. In the centre of Africa are several states, extending along the banks of the Djyr, Tchad, and Nigir, from Nubia and Sennaar, quite to the Atlantic Ocean. Next

to Nubia are Kordofan and Dar-Fur, with their respective capitals Obevdh and Cobbe: to the W. of them is Dar-Saley (or Waday), the chief town of which is Wara. On the E. side of L. Tchad lies Begharmi, with its capital of the same name; on the N. side of the Lake is Kanem, the metropolis of which is Maoo; and on its Western side is Bornou, the chief cities of which are New Birnie and Kouka. Beyond these, to the Westward, is the extensive territory of Howssa, stretching for a great distance along the banks of the Nigir; in it are the cities of Kanoo, Kashna, and Sackatoo. All these latter territories belong to the country which, from its black population, has been named Soudan or Nigritia.

8. Between Howssa and the Atlantic Ocean there is a multitude of little states, scattered along the banks of the Nigir, Senegal, Gambia, Rio Grande, &c.; the Western part of this region, lying towards the Senegal and Gambia, is frequently called, from these two rivers, Senegambia. To the South of it, at the mouth of the rivers Rokelle and Camaranca, is the British settlement of Sierra Leone. The coast of Guinea, is that part of Africa, which runs in a parallel line with the Equator, and about 5° to the North of it; it is divided into the Grain-Coast, the Ivory-Coast, the Gold-Coast, and the Slave-Coast, and contains many kingdoms, amongst which is that of Ashantee.

9. The Southern part of the continent likewise contains several kingdoms and states, though but little can be said concerning them. On the Western coast, about midway between Guinea and the Cape of Good Hope, are the kingdoms of Loango, Congo, Angola, Matamba, Lubolo, Benguela, and many others of little note: these states are sometimes distinguished by the collective name of Lower Guinea. The colony of the Cape of Good Hope (the country of the Hottentots) occupies the whole Southern extremity of Africa; it belongs to the British, and is divided into several districts, the capital of which is Cape Town. To the N. of it dwell the Koranas, the Bichuanas, and many other savage tribes.

10. On the Eastern coast of Africa, above the Cape Colony, are the Kaffers, the Tambookies, Mambookies, and other tribes, scarcely possessing any civilization. Between these last and the great river Zambeze, or Cuama, lies the extensive country of Mocaranga (or Monomotapa, as it is sometimes called), divided into a great number of states, as Motapa, Manica, Botonga, Sofala, Sabia, Inhambane, &c. To the North of it is the territory of Mozambique, which has given name to the channel of the Indian Ocean running between the main and the great island of Madagascar. To the N. of Mozambique lie Zanzibar, Ajan, and several other districts, inhabited by barbarous tribes, concerning whom very little is known.

11. At the Northern extremity of the Mozambique Channel are the Comoro Isles, inhabited by a harmless and well-disposed race of people; beyond them to the N. E. lie several groups of islands, chiefly belonging to the British, amongst which we may mention the Seychelle Is. in the Mahé Archipelago. The Island of Socotra lies off C. Guardafui, the N. E. extremity of Africa, and is under the dominion of Arabia. To the E. of Madagascar lie the three islands called Bourbon, Mauritius (or I. of France), and Roderigue, of which the two last belong to the English, and the first to the French.

12. In the Atlantic Ocean, to the South of the Coast of Guinea, are the islands of Fernando Po, Prince's I., St. Thomas, Anno Bon, St. Helena, and Ascension: of these, St. Helena and Fernando Po belong to Britain; Princes I., St. Thomas, and Anno Bon, are claimed by Portugal. In the North Atlantic Ocean are the Cape Verde Islands, which lie off Cape Verde, and belong to Portugal; the Canary, or Fortunate Islands, are under the dominion of Spain, and lie farther North, off the lower extremity of Morocco. Above the Canary Is. are the Madeiras; and considerably to the West of the latter are the Azores, or Western Islands: both the last groups are in the possession of the Portuguese.

Continent of Africa.

13. The superficial extent and probable population of the principal countries in Africa will be seen by the following table:

STATISTICAL TABLE OF AFRICA.

	Square Miles.	Souls.
Algeria	241,500	5,000,000
Algiers	81,900	3,500,000
Amoy Is.	800	160,000
Arca	97,800	750,000
Banthon I.	520	85,000
Cadix Is.	2,900	120,000
Cape of Good Hope Colony	94,400	150,000
Cadix Is.	1,000	30,000
Fez	122,000	4,000,000
Fernando Po	500	10,000
Fez	22,600	6,500,000
Fez	136,400	180,000
Guinea	243,100	8,000,000
Guinea, Lower	295,200	4,000,000
Madagascar	177,200	2,800,000
Madeira	520	95,000
Mauritius I.	410	90,000
Mozambique	225,700	4,000,000
Mozambique	36,200	8,000,000
Natal	311,200	2,000,000
Senegambia	330,000	10,000,000
Senegal I.	1,050	30,000
Senegal	955,000	20,000,000
Senegal I. of St.	700	20,000
Tripoli	44,100	2,500,000
Tunis	38,500	2,500,000
Verde Is. Cape	1,800	100,000
Africa, Remainder of	5,429,000	8,000,000
Total in Africa	8,902,000	92,680,000

14. THE PRINCIPAL RIVERS of Africa are, in MOROCCO, the Tensift, Morbea, and Seboo, which enter the Atlantic Ocean, besides the Mahala or Moulouia, which runs into the Mediterranean Sea. In the Southern part of Algiers, upon the edge of the great desert, is the R. Zaab or Adjedee, which runs into the Lake of Melgig, and never reaches the sea: in the Northern part of Algiers are the Shellif, the Ouse, and the Kebir, which all flow into the Mediterranean. The Mejerdah rises in the Eastern part of Algiers, and, passing through the Northern part of Tunis, enters the Mediterranean a few miles to the N. of the city of Tunis.

15. The Nile has two sources, one a long way to the West of the other: the Western, and true source, rises near the Lunar Mountains, and forms the Bahr el Abiad or White R.; but the Eastern source lies in the territory of the Abyssinians, and forms the Bahr el Azergue or Blue Nile. These two arms unite at the town of Halfaia, the distance to the N. of the town of Sennaar; and together form the great river which runs through Nubia and Egypt into the Mediterranean Sea. Besides the tributaries above mentioned, the Nile has likewise another, called the Tacazze, which it receives on its right bank, a little below the town of Chandi.

16. The R. Djyr or Misselad rises near the true source of the Nile and runs in a N. W. direction into Lake Tchad. To the S. and W. of it is the great river Nigir, Ouorra, or Quolla, the course and termination of which were for ages enveloped in uncertainty. It rises in the Western part of the continent, in Western Guinea, and runs for an immense distance, generally in an Eastern direction, till it enters the Gulf of Guinea: it likewise communicates with the Lake Tchad, and at certain times (if not always), as it is thought, with the Nile of Egypt. In the Westernmost part of Africa there are many large rivers running into the Atlantic; such as the Senegal, near C. Verde, the Gambia, the Rio Grande, and the Rokelle, which last enters the sea at Sierra Leone.

17. There are several important rivers in the Southern part of the continent. Amongst these we may mention the Zahir or Congo, which rises near the Equator, and after separating the two states of Congo and Loango, runs into the South Atlantic Ocean: below it are other rivers of considerable importance, as the Lelunda, Coanza, and Bembarooghe. The Gariép, or Orange R., waters the Southern extremity of Africa, and partly forms the boundary of our colony at the Cape of Good Hope; it runs nearly across the continent in a Westerly direction, and enters the South Atlantic Ocean at Cape Voltas. On the Eastern coast of Africa are the Rivers Laurenço Marquez, which runs into Delagoa Bay, the Inhambané, Sofala, and Cuama (or Zambeze), the greatest of the whole: all these run into the Indian Ocean.

12. The following table will convey some idea of the actual and comparative lengths of these rivers :

SYNOPTICAL TABLE OF THE RIVERS OF AFRICA.

	Miles.		Miles.
Bembareoghe - - -	420	Mejerdah - - -	300
Cabes - - -	165	Morbea - - -	300
Cachoe - - -	260	Moulouia or Mahala - - -	165
Camaranca - - -	290	Nigir or Quolla - - -	2,200
Camtoos - - -	210	Nile - - -	2,700
Coanza - - -	470	Nile, Blue, or Azergus - - -	900
Congo or Zahir - - -	1,340	Noon - - -	100
Cuama or Zambeze - - -	1,180	Orange or Gariep - - -	800
Djyr or Misselad - - -	1,100	Onse - - -	200
Fillely - - -	275	Quilimanci - - -	900
Fish, G ^t . - - -	220	Rokelle - - -	200
Gambia - - -	1,202	Saboo - - -	100
Gaurits - - -	175	Senegal - - -	1,000
Grande - - -	340	Shellif - - -	200
Kebir - - -	80	Sofala - - -	200
Laurenzo Marquez - - -	470	Tacazze or Athara - - -	600
Lelunda - - -	420	Tensift - - -	1,200
Lozé - - -	385	Zaab or Adjedee - - -	200

19. PRINCIPAL GULFS AND SEAS OF AFRICA. The principal Gulfs of Africa in the Mediterranean are the Great Syrtis and the Little Syrtis, or as they are now commonly called the Gulf of Sidra and the Gulf of Cabes. Midway on the Western coast is the enormous Gulf of Guinea, at the head of which are two smaller Gulfs named the Bight of Benin and the Bight of Biafra. On the Eastern coast, opposite the I. of Madagascar, is Sofala Bay. The Sea of Bab-el-Mandeb joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean, being bounded on the N. by the coast of Arabia, and on the S. by the North Eastern shores of Africa. The Red Sea, or Arabian Gulf, is that long narrow arm of the Indian Ocean, which runs up between Arabia on the East and the shores of Egypt, Nubia, and Abyssinia on the West. The only known inland seas of any consequence in Africa are the Lakes Tchad and Fittre, in the centre of the continent; and L. Tzana or Dembea, at the Eastern source of the Nile.

20. PRINCIPAL STRAITS OF AFRICA. The Strait of Gibraltar, which separates the kingdom of Fez from the province of Seville in Spain, lies at the Western extremity of the Mediterranean Sea, and connects it with the

Atlantic Ocean. The Mozambique Channel is that broad passage which intervenes between the Island of Madagascar and the mainland of Africa. The narrow strait which joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean is called the St. of Bab-el-Mandeb, or (as the name signifies) the Gates of Death.

§1. CHIEF CAPES OF AFRICA. In the Mediterranean Sea we meet with C. Rasat, the Northern extremity of Barca; and C. Bon, near Tunis, to the W. of which is Ras al Krun, the Northernmost point of the whole continent. C. Spartel is the N. Western extremity of Africa, and the outmost point of the St. of Gibraltar. On the Western coast of the continent in the Atlantic are, C. Cantin in Morocco, C. Bojador opposite the Canary Islands, C. Blanco, and C. Verde opposite the Cape Verde Islands. Farther S. on the coast of Guinea we find C. Palmas and C. Formosa; and between these and the C. of Good Hope are C. Lopez, C. Padron, and C. Negro. The C. of Good Hope is at the Southern extremity of Africa; but it is not so far South as the neighbouring C. Agulhas, which is the Southernmost point of the whole continent, and indeed of the whole Eastern Hemisphere, its islands excepted. On the Eastern coast of Africa are C. Corrientes and C. Delgado opposite the I. of Madagascar; and C. Guardafui its N. Eastern extremity, opposite Arabia.

CHAPTER XXV.

THE BARBARY STATES,

1. **THE** whole Northern part of Africa, from the Atlantic Ocean to the limits of Egypt, is comprehended under the general name of Barbary; and the states of Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, of which it is composed are called the Barbary States. The name of

Barbary is derived from that of the Berbers or Brebers, who appear to be the most ancient race by whom these regions are peopled, and still preserve their independence in all the mountain-districts: many of them live a Nomadic life, but others of them have fixed villages, and cultivate the ground. The Moors form the ruling people of the whole country, and by them all the cities are chiefly inhabited. Their name is corrupted from that of the Mauri, the old inhabitants of the country, and is used in an equally extended sense, though to a very different race of people: it may now be considered as including that portion of the Mahometan conquerors of Northern Africa, who have addicted themselves to a settled mode of life, together with such other inhabitants of the country as have become incorporated with them, and been trained to the same habits.

2. The Berbers have a kind of popular government, at the head of which is a shekh, who has the general management of all matters relating to the cluster of villages over which he is the chief. Though they have been in some degree subjected by the arms, and converted to the faith, of their Mahometan conquerors, yet they yield them a very indignant and imperfect obedience, frequently breaking out into open rebellion, and displaying the most formidable enmity. The Arabs also form a numerous class of the inhabitants of Barbary, occupying with their flocks and herds all the interior and pastoral districts of the country: they have preserved the original name and habits of the conquerors of those regions, living a completely Nomadic life, and moving about from one place to another, as soon as the district round their encampment is unable to support them any longer. They are governed by their own shekhs, over whom one called an Emir presides: they owe merely tribute and military service to the sovereign in whose territory their tents are situated, and whenever the government is weak or disputed, the shekhs set it at defiance and act in a manner entirely independent. The Jews exist in considerable numbers throughout all the cities of Barbary, and as in most of the states there exists no law for their protection, the hardships of their situation are exceedingly great. They are the objects of perpetual insult, contumely, and oppression; envied for their wealth, despised for their avarice, and abhorred as enemies to the faith: but from being the only class capable of managing trade, they make immense profits, the opportunity of reaping which, no oppression can induce them to relinquish.

3. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. Mt. Atlas is a lofty and extensive range of mountains, covered in many parts with perpetual snow, and rising to the height of 13,000 feet; it stretches from the shores of the Atlantic Ocean opposite the Canary Islands, to the city of Tunis and the coasts of the Little Syrtis, serving as a gigantic barrier to separate the cultivated territory of Barbary

from the vast expanse of the Libyan Desert. The promontory where it rises from the Atlantic Ocean is called *C. Noon*; hence it strikes out in a North Easterly direction, forming the Eastern boundary of Morocco and Fez, intersects the whole Regency of Algiers, and then becomes lost in the desert to the S. of the Little Syrtis on the borders of Tunis and Tripoli: an arm of it, however, trends N. E. through Tunis and terminates in *C. Bon. Mt. Atlas* was remarkable amongst the Ancients for the legend connected with it, according to which a certain famous hero, called Atlas, was here metamorphosed into this mountain; the loftiness of which caused them to imagine that the heavens rested on its top, and Atlas was therefore said to bear the world on his shoulders. *Mt. Atlas* has given name to the Atlantic Ocean.

4. The range of *Mt. Atlas* is distinguished amongst the natives by many names whilst passing through this great extent of country. On the frontiers of Morocco it is called *Gebel Tedla*; here, between the rivers *Seboo* and *Moulouia*, it casts off a spur which terminates on the shores of the St. of *Alger* above Ceuta, in a mountain with seven peaks named *Apes' Hill*. The whole Regency of Algiers is intersected by many ramifications of *Mt. Atlas*: the names of some of them are, *Mt. Ammer*, *Mt. Saary*, *Mt. Wanshrecse*, *Mt. Aphroune*, *Mt. Zeckar*, and *Mt. Aures*.

5. The range of mountains which partly forms the Southern boundary of the Regency of Tipoli appears like the Eastern continuation of *Mt. Atlas*; it is called the *Souarit Mt.*, and is connected towards the South with the lofty chain called the *Soudah Mt.* or *Black Harutsh*. The last mentioned range intersects the kingdom of Fezzan, on the limits of which and of Barca it throws off an arm, called the *Moraije* and *Gerdoba Mt.* which traverse Barca and terminate on the frontiers of it and Egypt.

6. The Western part of Barbary contains many considerable rivers, which flow down from the various ramifications of *Mt. Atlas* into the Atlantic Ocean and Mediterranean Sea. The chief of those which discharge themselves into the Atlantic are, the *Noon*, the *Suse*, the *Tensift*, all in Morocco; the *Morbea*, which forms the line of demarcation between Morocco and Fez; and the *Seboo* in Fez: of these, the *Morbea*, which is the greatest river, is only 200 miles long. Amongst the rivers running into the Mediterranean Sea we may mention the *Moulouia* or *Mahala*, forming the boundary between Fez and Algiers; the *Shellif*, the *Hamza*, the *Kebir*, the *Zaab* or *Adjedee*, and the *Sibbous*, in Algiers; the *Mejerdah*, the *Cabes*, and the *Fessa*, in Tunis: of these the *Zaab* and *Mejerdah* are the largest, the former being 3

and the latter 250 miles long. In the Eastern part of Barbary, there is only one river of the least consequence, viz. the R. Nahil, which enters the Mediterranean at the Gulf of Bomba: all the others are mere mountain-torrents, which in the summer season are mostly dry.

7. The R. Cabes mentioned above runs through a large lake in the S. part of Tunis; this lake is 200 miles in circumference, and is nearly divided into two parts, named Bahr (i. e. *Lake*) Faraouni and Bahr Shibkah or Lowdash. The L. of Bizerta, in the N. part of Tunis, is so called after the town of this name, near which it communicates with the Mediterranean Sea. The R. Zaab empties itself into a small lake named Melgig, on the borders of Algiers, Tunis, and the Great Desert of Sahara. The Shott is an extensive salt morass in the N. E. part of Algiers; its circuit is about 150 miles, and it is formed by the confluence of several little rivers, as the Mailah, Jenenne, Bareekah, &c. Lake Titteri is in the N. W. part of Algiers, and is traversed by the R. Shellif.

8. Amongst the chief capes on the Barbary coast may be noticed C. Noon, C. Tefelneh, C. Cantin, and C. Spartel, all in the Atlantic Ocean; the last mentioned is at the Western extremity of the St. of Gibraltar. This Strait, which separates Europe from Africa, lies between the Southern extremity of Seville in Spain and the Northern extremity of Fez in Barbary; it is 34 miles long, and only 8 miles across in its narrowest part: Ceuta, which forms its Easternmost point, is 22 miles distant from the opposite Rock of Gibraltar. The principal capes of Barbary in the Mediterranean Sea are, C. Tres Forcas in Fez; C. Ferro or Hadeed, the Northernmost point of Algiers; Ras al Krun, the Northernmost point of Tunis, and indeed of the whole continent of Africa; C. Bon, the N. E. promontory of Tunis; C. Mesurata and C. Tejones, both in Tripoli; and C. Rasat or Ras Sem, the Northern extremity of Barca.

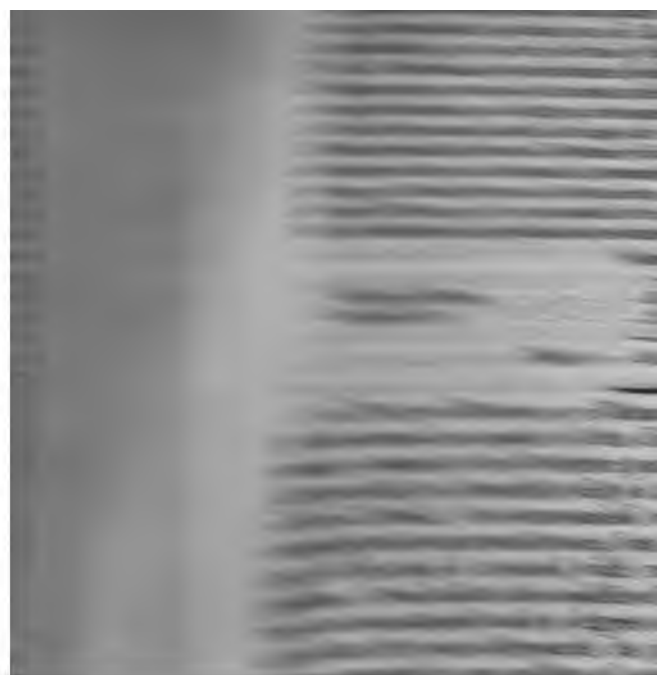
9. The two principal gulfs of Barbary in the Mediterranean are, the Gulf of Cabes and the Gulf of Sidra or Djoon-al-Kabrit (i. e. *the Gulf of Sulphur*): the latter, which is also frequently called the Great Syrtis, lies between Tripoli and Barca; and the former, likewise named the Little Syrtis, is on the S. coast of the Regency of Tunis.

10. The other chief gulfs are, the Gulfs of Elmellah and Bomba on the shores of Barca; those of Hammamet, Tunis, and Bizerta, on the coast of Tunis; those of Bona, Stora, Zazeli, and Tremezen, on the shores of Algiers; and the G. of Melilla on the coast of Fez.

THE EMPIRE OF MOROCCO.

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11. The Empire of Morocco, or Marocco as the name is also written, is bounded on the W. by the Atlantic Ocean, on the N. by the Mediterranean Sea, on the E. by the kingdom of Algiers, and on the S. by the great desert of Sahara: it contains about 68,800 square miles, and its population is estimated at 14,500,000 souls, which is generally thought to be an exaggeration. It is composed of two nearly equal parts, viz. Morocco Proper and Fez, the latter lying towards the North. It has derived its name from the ancient Mauri, or Moors as they are now called, who are well known in history from the circumstance of their having very much contributed to the establishment of the power of their brethren the Moors in Spain: the latter people were called Moriscoes by the Spaniards, in order to distinguish them from the Moors of Barbary. The religion of the Moors is Mahometanism, which they observe very rigidly: the government is perhaps the most complete, as well as the most barbarous and brutal despotism on the face of the earth.

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12. The Moors belong to the sect of Omar, and are remarkable for their superstition, enthusiasm, and fanaticism, qualities of which their despotic rulers do not fail to avail themselves. Saints and their sanctuaries are very numerous amongst them, and are devoutly invoked and visited for the cure of their diseases, for the fertility of their lands, and for success in every piratical undertaking which their notorious cruelty may lead them to commence. The despotism of the government is completed by there not being in Morocco, as in Turkey, ulemas and mustis, who profess privileges independent of the sovereign, and even occasionally interfere to check his determinations; neither is there a council or divan, whom he is expected to consult: all is done by the single command of the monarch, without the assistance of ministers, for he is judged to do all things of himself, and acts precisely according to the caprice of the moment. The subject, throughout the empire, has nothing which he can call his own, not even his opinions or his existence: his master deprives him of his property or his life whenever he pleases. The services that are performed to the sovereign are gratuitous, and merely honorary; and the favours, which he may think proper to bestow at his own pleasure, are the only revenue of those who perform them. Money, in this government, is the only key to office, and constitutes the crime, as it obtains the pardon, of the accused. The governors of provinces, or *Bashaws* as they are termed, purchase their situations with their property, and private persons, in like manner, buy the forbearance of these plundering magistrates with such presents as they are able:



Morocco. It was founded in the middle of the last century by one of the emperors, who spared no pains to make it the principal seat of commerce in his dominions: it is the residence of the foreign consuls, and the great depôt for most of the commerce which is carried on between Europe and the Empire of Morocco. It stands on a low flat desert of accumulating sand, and is altogether separated from the cultivated country, so that, except for the traffic which it carries on, it possesses but little importance. It is tolerably well fortified, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants. Prior to the building of Mogodor, Saffi was the principal port of the kingdom of Morocco, but it is no longer a place of any trade, and is rapidly falling to decay; it lies also on the shores of the Atlantic Ocean, about seventy miles to the N. E. of Mogodor.

About seventy miles to the S. of Mogodor lies Agadeer or Santa Cruz, at the mouth of the little R. Suse: it is the largest and most secure port in the empire, and was at one time the centre of a very extensive commerce, but its strength and remote situation at last excited the jealousy of the emperors, who, finding the inhabitants independent and refractory, reduced them by force and transported them to Mogodor. Terodant is about fifty miles to the Eastward of Santa Cruz, near the source of the R. Suse, and almost at the extremity of the empire of Morocco: it was formerly the capital of a small kingdom, but is at present only the residence of a trusty governor, in whom, owing to the situation of the town on the borders of his dominions, the emperor is obliged to repose great confidence.

17. THE KINGDOM OF FEZ forms the Northern and more important part of the Empire of Morocco: it extends from the R. Morbea, which divides it from Morocco Proper, to the R. Moulouia, which forms the line of demarcation between it and Algiers, and extends for about 200 miles on each side of the Strait of Gibraltar. Its capital, Fez, is situated in the centre of the country, on an arm of the R. Seboo, at an equal distance of about seventy miles from the Atlantic and Mediterranean. It was built at the conclusion of the eighth century, and soon became a large city, and the capital of the Western Mahometan state. Its population is said to have amounted at one time to 400,000 souls, but it does not at present exceed a fourth part of this number.

18. Fez was esteemed such a sacred city, that when the road to Mecca was shut up in the fourth century of the Hejira, the Western Mussulmans made pilgrimages to it. It was also famous as a school of learning, at a time when knowledge was almost exclusively under the power of the Saracens; its institutions for the study of astronomy, philosophy, and physic, were resorted to not only by students from all the Mahometan kingdoms of Spain and Africa, but were likewise attended by many Christians. Fez contains more than 200 caravansaries (or inns), some of which are very spacious and convenient; many of its public buildings are splendid, especially in the interior: the finest edifice is the mosque of Carubin, built during the most flourishing period of the city, which is described as nearly a mile in circuit, and so holy that no European is allowed to enter it. About

thirty miles to the S. W. of Fez lies Mequinez, a large and handsome city : it has derived all its importance from one of the sovereigns having resolved to make it the capital of the Northern, as Morocco was of the Southern part of his dominions, and hence it has become the usual residence of the emperor of Morocco. It is said to contain nearly 100,000 inhabitants. To the W. of these, on the coast of the Atlantic, are the two towns Sallee and Rabat, lying opposite to each other at the mouth of the R. Bu Begreg : they are both walled, and were once well peopled places, but their importance has much diminished, owing to the tyranny of the sovereign and the jealous disposition of the people, and they are now but little visited by Europeans.

19. The town of Tangier is situated a little to the Eastward of C. Sparte, near the Western extremity of the Strait of Gibraltar. It was for a long time an object of eager contest between the Moors and Portuguese, till it finally fell into the hands of the latter people : it became annexed to the English crown in the year 1662, having been ceded to Charles 2nd, as a marriage portion with the Princess Catherine of Portugal, but it was shortly afterwards abandoned by our government, when its fortifications were destroyed. It is at present a place of very little consequence, containing scarcely 10,000 inhabitants, and subsisting chiefly by supplying the garrison and inhabitants of Gibraltar with some of the necessaries of life. At the Eastern extremity of the Strait, and directly opposite to Gibraltar, lies the fortress of Ceuta or the Southern Pillar of Hercules. Ceuta is well fortified, and is naturally a place of some strength, being situated on an elevated rock, which is only connected with the mainland by a narrow sandy isthmus : it has frequently been a subject of hot dispute between the Portuguese and Moors, as well as between the latter people and the Spaniards. Ceuta is one of the few places out of the many once belonging to the court of Madrid in the empire of Morocco : it is the chief amongst those of its possessions here, known by the name of Presidios, the others being Melilla and Peñon de Velez.

THE REGENCY OF ALGIERS.

20. The Kingdom of Algiers, or the Regency of Algiers as it is also styled, is bounded on the W. by the empire of Morocco, on the N. by the Mediterranean Sea, on the E. by the kingdom of Tunis, and on the S. by the great desert of Sahara. It contains about 81,900 square miles, and its population is estimated at 3,500,000 inhabitants. It is divided into three great provinces, viz. Tlemsan or Tremezen, in the West ; Algiers Proper or Titterie, in the centre ; and Cosantina, in the East, adjoining Tunis, to which kingdom it once belonged. The religion of the Algerines is Mahometanism, and differs from that of the Turks only in the circumstance of their adopting a greater variety of superstitions. The government is a tumultuous despotism, consisting of a *Dey* or King, and a *Douwan* or council.

The Dey is chosen out of the army, each order, even the most inferior, having a right and title to that dignity with the highest. Every bold and adventurous trooper, however obscure his origin, may be considered as a candidate to the throne; nor does he wait for his accession till sickness or old age shall have removed the present ruler, provided that he can seize himself by the same scimitar which he plunges into the breast of his predecessor. Accordingly the succession of Deys at Algiers is usually very precarious, scarcely one in ten having had the good fortune to die in his bed; those who have enjoyed their power for a long period, have secured it, not so much by the attachment and good will of the people, as by their own sagacity in perceiving the first tendency to an insurrection, and their ability to suppress it by the death of the conspirators before they have had an opportunity of accomplishing their designs. Every election is of course attended with tumult, and sometimes with serious contests and bloodshed. The *douwan* or council at first consisted of eight hundred military officers, whose counsel and consent the Dey could not act; and on extraordinary occasions, all the officers resident at Algiers, amounting to double that number, were summoned to assist. But since the Deys have become powerful and independent, the *douwan* is principally composed of thirty or a few magistrates: it is now but little regarded, and only consulted for the purpose of sanctioning measures previously concerted betwixt the Dey and his favourites, and for the sake of its sharing in the responsibility and odium of those transactions, which emanate in fact from the Dey alone.

After the Vandals had been driven from this country by the general arms of the Greek empire until the overpowering arms of the Saracens reduced it to subjection. After this it was variously possessed by the descendants of the Califs, having been sometimes annexed to the empire of Morocco, and sometimes parcelled out into a number of independent principalities. In the year 1505, the Spaniards, during the reign of Ferdinand 5th, sent a powerful army and fleet against Algiers, with a view of restraining the depredations of the Moors, who had been banished from Spain about twelve years before; and such was their success, that they soon made themselves masters of Oran, Bujeya, and Algiers itself, which they reduced to subjection and compelled to tributary. They also erected a strong fort on the small island opposite, and thus prevented the Algerine corsairs from sailing into or out of the harbour.

On the death of Ferdinand, in 1516, the Algerines invited Barbarossa, who was then on a cruise with a squadron of galleys, to assist them in shaking off the Spanish yoke, promising him a reward corresponding with the importance of the service. The bold and adventurous pirate gladly accepted the invitation, and succeeded in wresting their conquests from the Europeans; and no sooner accomplished this, than he determined to seize upon the sovereignty of the country as his own reward; and after having committed all kinds of atrocities upon such of the deluded inhabitants as dared to oppose the point with him, he ascended the throne. He conquered several neighbouring chiefs, and successfully prosecuted many bold schemes for the aggrandizement of his new kingdom, till he at last fell a victim to ambition in a battle with the Spaniards near Tremezen, in which he lost his crown and his life. His brother Hayradin proclaimed himself king in his stead; and in order to be secure against the farther conquests of the Spaniards, as well as against the insurrection of the natives, he despatched an ambassador with magnificent presents to Selim 1st, then emperor of

Constantinople, to notify the death of Barbarossa, and to make him an offer of submitting the kingdom to his protection, and of paying him an annual tribute in return for his assistance. The Sultan was pleased with this proposal, and having received Hayradin under his protection, appointed him his bashaw, pacha, or viceroy over the kingdom of Algiers; but some years afterwards, feeling rather jealous of his rising power, he advanced him to the dignity of Captain Pacha of the Ottoman Empire, and appointed a Sardinian renegado bashaw of Algiers in his stead.

24. Several other barbarians, appointed by the Grand Signor, enjoyed the dignity of King of Algiers; but in the beginning of the 17th century the Algerines complained to the Sublime Porte, in very strong terms of remonstrance, of the oppressive conduct of the Turkish viceroys, and in consequence of this remonstrance obtained leave to choose their own Deys or kings. They engaged that the usual tribute should be regularly transmitted to Constantinople; to acknowledge the Grand Signor for their sovereign; to be ready on all occasions to assist him with their forces and shipping; to pay a due respect to his bashaws, and to maintain them in a manner suitable to their dignity: provided that the government of the country should be wholly committed to the direction of the Dey and his douwan or divan. The great douwan proceeded to the election of a Dey from their own body, and to enact a variety of laws and regulations: these measures terminated in rendering them independent of the Sublime Porte, and gave the finishing touch to that ferocious and piratical character they had already so frequently displayed, and which has since rendered them the pest of the whole Mediterranean. Several of the European powers have been compelled to visit their piracies with severe punishment: their capital was bombarded, and they themselves were compelled to submit without reserve to the most humiliating terms, by the British, in the year 1816; and the French not long since, likewise reduced them to subjection.

25. Algiers, the metropolis of the kingdom, is situated on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea, midway between the frontiers of Morocco and Tunis; the Turks call it *Algezira* or *The Island*, because there is an island lying to the Eastward of the city and directly opposite to it. Algiers is surrounded with a wall about three miles in circuit, 12 feet thick, and from 30 to 40 feet high: it has likewise several castles, but all its fortifications on the land side are but of little avail, the harbour alone being well defended. At the time when Algiers was bombarded by the British in 1816, it was estimated to contain nearly 200,000 souls; but since that catastrophe the number of inhabitants in the city has diminished considerably more than one half.

26. Algiers is built on the declivity of a hill, on which the houses rise gradually in the form of an amphitheatre, terminating nearly in a point at the summit, and presenting, when viewed from the sea, a magnificent spectacle. The houses are generally three stories high, and occupied by several families: they are all regularly whitewashed at stated periods, and have flat roofs arranged in such a manner as to form a convenient promenade, and

hence visits to a considerable distance can be performed on the tops of them. When the Spaniards first gained possession of Algiers, they erected a strong fort upon the island, which effectually prevented the Algerine corsairs from sailing into the harbour or out of it. This fort was taken by Hayradin, the successor of Barbarossa, who united the island with the city by a mole, and thus rendered Algiers a commodious harbour, by sheltering it from the weather and rough seas: this barbarian employed no less than 30,000 Christian slaves in the building of the mole, which was completed in three years, and has materially added not only to the convenience but to the strength of the city.

27. To the Eastward of Algiers lies the sea-port of Bujeya or Bougia, at the mouth of the R. Hamza; the harbour is commodious and well defended, and the town one of the few places in the country where the Algerines maintain an effective garrison. Still farther Eastward on the coast lie Stora, Bona, and La Cala, the last of which is close upon the borders of Tunis: they are all convenient harbours, but owing to the barbarous policy of the government they are now little visited by Europeans. The province of Cosantina is the Easternmost of the three composing the kingdom of Algiers, to which it became annexed during the last century, having been previously dependant on Tunis. It derives its name from the town of Cosantina, which is situated in the interior of the country, on a branch of the river Kebir, about 35 miles distant from the sea coast; it is one of the most important places in the kingdom, being naturally very strong, and otherwise well defended. Its present population does not exceed 35,000 souls.

28. Tremezen or Tlemsan, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated in the North Western part of the kingdom, about 25 miles distant from the Mediterranean Sea. It was once a flourishing and populous place, but was besieged about 150 years since, in consequence of its having revolted from the Dey of Algiers, who reduced it to ruins, so that not more than one sixth part of the old town is now standing. The principal place in the province of Tremezen is the sea-port of Oran or Warran, situated opposite Cartagena in Spain: it has long been a subject of contention between the Moors and Spaniards, the latter of whom took it in 1509, and maintained possession of it till 1708, when the Algerines perceiving its defences neglected, took it by surprise. The Spaniards, however, regained it thirty years afterwards, and retained it till a recent period, when they gave up the town itself, but kept possession of the neighbouring fortress Marsa Kebir. Oran is well situated, and contains some beautiful churches and other edifices which have been built by the Spaniards at different periods: it has 20,000 inhabitants.

THE REGENCY OF TUNIS.

29. The Regency or Kingdom of Tunis is bounded on the W. by Algiers, on the N. and E. by the Mediterranean Sea, and on the S. by Tripoli and the great desert of Sahara: it contains about 38,500 square miles and 2,500,000 inhabitants. The religion of Tunis is Mahometanism of a very superstitious and bigoted character. The Porte has still a bashaw residing here, but in power and influence he is a mere cipher, serving only to remind the Tunisians of their having been once subject to the Tur

Sultans. The Dey governs with despotic authority, the power of the Douwan (or Council) being merely nominal.

30. After the Vandals and Goths had been driven out of Tunis, it fell under the power of the Saracens, when it was governed by viceroys, called emirs, who fixed their court at Kairwan. The emperor of Morocco afterwards reduced it to subjection, subsequent to which it became an independent and powerful kingdom, and remained so for a long period of time. It was overrun by Barbarossa in the year 1535, and was finally made a province of the Ottoman Empire under the dominion of Selim II. The protection of the Sublime Porte, however, soon displayed those features of oppression and tyranny for which it has always been distinguished; and the rapacious extortion of its bashaws obliged the Tunisians to shake off the yoke of the Grand Seigneur, and to form a government of their own. The government they settled in such a manner, that their Dey, as they were then called, could do nothing without the advice and consent of the Douwan or Divan; but they have found means, in time, to rid themselves of this uneasy clog also, though they still retain a kind of form or shadow of both.

31. At the first settling of this new form of government, the deylik was the supreme dignity, as it is still at Algiers, that of Bey being next in rank and wholly subordinate to it: however, having since built their power upon the ruins of the deys, they have, by degrees, raised the beyship to be despotic and independent. The Bey has now power to name which of his sons he pleases for his successor; or in case he does not think any of them worthy, he may appoint a brother or a nephew to the succession: but the dignity generally falls to the share of that son, who has been able, by his address, to form the strongest party, rather than to him who had been appointed by the father. Hence it is, that whenever the throne becomes vacant, whether in the course of nature or by open treason and rebellion, it is seldom filled up again without a great deal of bloodshed, rapine, and violence, in proportion to the number of competitors. The Douwan is now completely nugatory; for being chiefly composed of friends and creatures of the Bey, it is assembled to give a forced approbation to certain measures already resolved upon, and not in any way to be consulted about their justice or expediency. The whole kingdom is at present divided into two circuits, the summer and the winter circuit, which the Bey makes in person through his dominions at those seasons. He likewise annually sends a small army to collect the tribute from such tribes as dwell far in the interior, and would not pay it but for the military force by which it is demanded. The Western frontier of Tunis is frequently exposed to the incursions of the Algerines, who, during the last century, took from it the important province of Coſantina, and are said to aim at subduing the whole kingdom.

32. Tunis, the metropolis of the kingdom, is situated midway between Bizerta and Cape Bon, about 12 miles to the South Westward of the famous ancient city Carthage, of which it may be properly considered as the successor. It stands on the Western side of a small bay, called the Bay of Tunis, which is nowhere more than a fathom deep, and communicates, by means of the Goletta Channel, with the Gulf of Tunis. The channel of The

Goletta is well fortified, and its entrance defended by a castle of the same name; on its Western side are the docks and great storehouses belonging to the kingdom. Tunis carries on a much more extensive commerce than any of the other Barbary cities, owing not only to its admirable situation, but to the zealous encouragement afforded by its sovereigns to foreign merchants: its present population is estimated at 130,000 souls.

33. The city of Tunis, though large, is built in the most irregular manner, and the streets are so extremely narrow and filthy, that they can with difficulty be passed through: it has high ground to the North and South, but an extensive marsh on the West and the shallow bay on the East, which do not, however, render it very unhealthy. The citadel, called El Gaspa, is on the Western side of the city, but is much out of repair, and is moreover completely commanded by the neighbouring heights: it was begun by Charles 5th. of Spain, who improved and embellished the whole city, and it was finished by John of Austria. The fortified palace of the Bey is called El Bardo, and is situated about two miles to the N. W. of the city. Bizerta or Benzert is the Northernmost town in the kingdom of Tunis: it stands on a little gulf of the Mediterranean, now known as the Gulf of Bizerta, and on the banks of the channel leading to the L. of Bizerta. Bizerta is about a mile in circuit and is well defended: it contains 8,000 inhabitants, and its harbour, once the first on the whole of this coast, is still much resorted to, though gradually filling up.

34. To the S. of Cape Bon, on the Eastern coast of Tunis, lie the towns of Mahmur, Hammamet, and Mahedia or Africa. To the N. W. of the last mentioned place, nearly twenty miles from the sea-shore, is Kairwan or Cairoan, once the capital of the whole country, and still only inferior to the city of Tunis itself, both as regards its population and the extensive traffic which it carries on. It lies, however, in the midst of a barren sandy district, and has no supply of water excepting what is collected in ponds during the rains; owing to which it suffers severely from drought during the heat of summer. Kairwan contains several handsome edifices, many of which are of Roman construction: its great mosque is reckoned the most sacred as well as the most magnificent in all Barbary, and is said to be supported by five hundred granite pillars. The number of its inhabitants is stated to be 50,000. Cabes, or Gabs is situated near the South Eastern extremity of the kingdom, on the shores of the Little Syrtis at the mouth of the R. Cabes: the banks of this river are covered with plantations of *henna*, the leaves of which are so much used by the Eastern ladies in tinging their fingers and hands.

THE REGENCY OF TRIPOLI.

35. The Regency or Kingdom of Tripoli, including its dependancy of Barca, is bounded on the W. by Tunis, on the N. by the Mediterranean Sea, on the E. by Egypt, and on the S. by Fezzan and the Great Sandy Desert: it contains about 141,900 square miles and 3,250,000 inhabitants. The habitable part of the kingdom consists

chiefly of the coast, which for a few miles inland is generally fertile and well cultivated, but the interior of the country is little else than a sandy and barren desert, occasionally traversed by rocky ranges of hills. The religion and government of Tripoli are in a great measure the same as those of Algiers and Tunis: the sovereign, or Bashaw as he is called, makes shift, by means of the protection he derives from the Porte, to keep up a despotic power, which is frequently stained with every species of crime. He is nominally, indeed, the subject of the Grand Seigneur, by whom, at the commencement of his reign, his succession to the crown must be confirmed; but the authority of the Sublime Porte is so little regarded, that he does not hesitate to carry on a system of piracy against its own vessels.

36. This state, as well as the rest of Barbary, after having been freed from the Roman yoke, fell successively under the power of the Vandals, Saracens, and the kings of Morocco, Fez, and Tunis; till, weary of their slavery and oppression, they resolved to have a monarch of their own, whom they accordingly chose from amongst themselves. Their new sovereign governed them at first with great equity and moderation, but he no sooner saw himself out of danger, than he began to play the tyrant in his turn, and was murdered; this act of violence led to others, which terminated in the subjection of the kingdom by the Spaniards, and its subsequent possession by the Knights of Malta. The latter successfully defended themselves for some time against Barbarossa in this their new acquisition, but they were at last induced to surrender it to the Turks, during the reign of Solymán, after which it continued dependant on the Ottoman Porte till the beginning of the last century. At this period, one of the viceroys sent from Constantinople, refused to receive or acknowledge any bashaw appointed by that court: he took the reins of government wholly upon himself, not indeed as independent, but as vassal and tributary to the Grand Seigneur, to whom he obliged himself to pay tribute and homage as an acknowledgment of his subjection and dependance. It is owing to this and the other exigencies of the regency, that the Bashaw of Tripoli loads his subjects with such heavy taxes and extortions, as have reduced the greatest part of the kingdom to the lowest indigence and misery: he is only able to collect them by sending a flying camp of troopers against the poverty-struck natives, for nothing but force, and sometimes exemplary severity, can extort tribute from them. It is likewise owing, as it is thought, to this hazardous dependancy on the Sublime Porte, and to a consciousness of its own internal weakness, that the regency of Tripoli has shown itself so scrupulously observant of all treaties with other nations, in the midst of the brutal and faithless pirates by whom it is surrounded: it has studiously cultivated the alliance of Great Britain, and such a friendship with other European Powers as might lead to an interchange of manufactures and merchandize at once mutual and beneficial.

37. Tripoli, the metropolis of the whole Regency,

stands near its Western extremity, on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea: it is built in a low situation on a narrow neck of land, and is tolerably extensive, but a large portion of the space included within its walls is unoccupied. The caravansaries, mosques, bazars, houses of foreign consuls, and of the higher ranks of the natives, are mostly built of stone, and regularly whitewashed twice a year; they are generally two stories high, but not equal to those of the same class in Algiers and Tunis. The lower orders construct their houses of earth, small stones, and mortar; they never exceed one story, and have all flat roofs, which serve as a promenade. Tripoli is tolerably well fortified for a Mahometan town, though it could not long resist the attack of a regular army; its castle is an irregular square pile, of more confusion than strength. The population of the town does not exceed 25,000, but it varies very much at different times, owing to the intercourse which exists between it and several great cities, as Morocco, Tombuctoo, and Mecca.

38. Farther Eastward are the inconsiderable towns Lebida and Mesurata, the latter of which has given name to Cape Mesurata, forming the Western extremity of the Greater Syrtis, or Gulf of Sidra as it is now called. The shores of this gulf are lined with a number of salt lagoons, as well as with many towns and villages, amongst which Isa, Zafferan, Boosheida, and Karkora are the most important: they are inhabited mostly by pirates and fishermen, who are reduced to the lowest degree of misery and wretchedness, through the exactions of the Bashaw and the depredations of the Arabs.

39. The Eastern part of the Regency of Tripoli is called Barca, and is governed by a Bey, who is dependant upon the Bashaw and appointed by him. On its coast, a little above the N. E. extremity of the Gulf of Sidra, lies Bengazi, the capital of a province of the same name; it was formerly a very flourishing place, though now so much reduced that its population scarcely amounts to 5,000 souls: it stands in the midst of a fertile little district, at the mouth of a small river fancied by some of the ancients to be the Triton of their mythology, which fertilized the beautiful gardens of the Hesperides.

40. Farther Eastward are Teukera and Dolmetta, which have now lost all their consequence, as has also Barca itself, which lies a few miles in the interior of the country to the South of Dolmetta, and has given name to the Desert of Barca. *The ruins of the famous ancient city Cyrene are now*

known by the name of Kuren or Grenna: hard by is its port Marsa-Suss, Derna, the capital of a district of the same name, and the metropolis of all Barca is situated about 50 miles to the Eastward of C. Rasat; it is the residence of the Bey appointed by the Bashaw to manage the affairs of the province, and is said to have been greatly increased and ornamented by the Moors, who settled here after their expulsion from Spain: it contains about 6,000 inhabitants. Beyond this is the Gulf of Bomba, so called from a town and island of the same name: betwixt it and the frontiers of Egypt lie several villages and towns upon the shores of the Mediterranean Sea, but they are all very small and unimportant. In the Southern part of Barca is the district of Augela, which is nominally included under the dominion of Tripoli, though the Bashaw's authority is only acknowledged in the presence of his troops: its chief town is likewise called Augela, and though in itself a place of but little importance, derives some consequence from lying on the great caravan road between Egypt and Fezzan. Some distance to the Eastward of it, on the Eastern frontiers of the kingdom, is the Oasis of Siwah, a fertile and well watered valley of some extent, hemmed in on every side by barren rocks: it derives all its interest from being the site of the famous temple of Jupiter Ammon.

CHAPTER XXVI.

PACHALIC OF EGYPT.

1. EGYPT is bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean Sea; on the W. by the Regency of Tripoli and the great Libyan Desert; on the S. by Nubia; and on the E. by the Red Sea, Arabia Petræa, and Syria, from which last it is separated by the Isthmus of Suez and the Torrent of Egypt. It contains about 122,000 square miles, of which, however, not more than one-sixth part is inhabited, the remainder being a sandy desert: its population is estimated at about 4,000,000 souls.

2. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. The range of mountains bounding the Western side of the valley of the Nile in its course through Egypt, is called the Libyan M^s., that on the E. side is known by the name of Gebel Mokattem: a little above the city of Cairo these two ridges suddenly stop short, the Western one striking off into the interior of Africa, and the Eastern one, under the name of Gebel Ataka, reaching Suez at the head of the Red Sea. Connected with the latter

there is a much more elevated range of mountains, which trends Southwards between the R. Nile and the Red Sea into Nubia : it bears several names, amongst which may be mentioned those of Gebel Khalil and Gebel Kolzum, and is remarkable for its mines of marble, precious stones, and gold.

3. The R. Nile is one of the longest rivers in the world. It rises 23° to the S. of the Mediterranean Sea from two sources. The more Eastern of these, called *Bahr el Azergue* or the *Blue Nile*, was the one visited by Mr. Bruce, the British traveller, and is situated amongst the mountains of Abyssinia ; but the Western branch, named the *Bahr el Abiad* or *White Nile*, is much more important, and rises in the Gebel Komri or Mountains of the Moon : the length of the Nile from these mountains to its mouth in the Mediterranean is 2,700 miles, and its course generally North. There are two well-known cataracts in the Nile, the upper one of which, called the Great Cataract, is at Wady Halfa in Nubia, the lower one is near Es-Souan, and is known by the name of Es-Shellale : the latter one forms the Southern frontier of Egypt, and from it the river runs through the long valley of this country, till it enters the Mediterranean Sea by seven mouths. The two principal arms of the Nile striking out from its main stream, near Cairo, and separating farther apart as they approach the coast, form a triangle, the basis of which is the Mediterranean Sea ; and hence, from its representing the letter Δ, the Greeks gave it the name of DELTA, which it has preserved to our own times.

4. But the most interesting phenomenon connected with the Nile, is its periodical inundation, upon which all the vaunted fertility of Egypt entirely depends ; without it the whole country, excepting such parts of it as are immediately on the banks of the river, or on the innumerable canals with which the natives have endeavoured to supply the want of rain, would be no better than the rest of the Libyan desert. About the time of the Summer solstice the river begins to swell, but without the least impetuosity, and continues gradually rising for nearly one hundred days, till the Autumnal Equinox, when it overflows its banks and covers the whole valley ; it remains stationary for some time, and then gradually decreases, till after the end of one hundred days, and towards the Winter solstice, it has again reached its ordinary level, which it maintains till the summer of the succeeding year.

In this manner the gigantic river has carried on its unceasing operations as far back as the history of man : in almost every other country inundations are looked upon as general desolations, but in Egypt the swelling waters of the Nile bring with them the greatest blessings. It is only of late years that this inundation has been ascertained to arise from the periodical rains, which fall in the Tropical regions from June to September, assisted by the Etesian winds, which blow violently from the North East, and thus hinder the waters from throwing themselves with their usual volume into the sea. The average rise of the Nile has always been, as it still is, sixteen cubits or twenty-four feet above its ordinary level, one year varying much from another ; when it rises to a greater height than this, the people suffer exceedingly from their habitations being destroyed by the overwhelming and irresistible body of water, and when it does not attain this height, all the upper grounds become as barren as the neighbouring desert. When the inundation has retired, the whole soil is found covered with a thick black slime, in which the principles of vegetation are fully contained.

5. The Eastern limits of Egypt are washed by the Red Sea and the Sea of Suez, which is one of its Northern extremities, so named from the town of Suez standing at its head. On the Northern shores of the country are several gulfs traversed by the various arms of the Nile before they join the Mediterranean Sea : these are the L. of Menzaleh, the L. of Bourlos, L. Etoko, the L. of Aboukir, and L. Marrouth. The Gulf of the Arabs is on the W. part of the Egyptian coast between Alexandria and the borders of Barca. To the S. W. of Cairo in the interior of the country is the Lake of the Faioum, called Birket-el-Quorn. Ras Bourlos is the Northernmost cape of Egypt : the other chief promontories are those of Damietta, Rosetta, and Aboukir.

6. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. By far the greater portion of the inhabitants of Egypt are Arabs and Turks, who are all Mahometans ; the remainder are Copts, who profess a degraded kind of Christianity, and Jews. The Pacha of Egypt is himself nominally the viceroy of the Porte, but he may be regarded as an independent sovereign in every thing but the name : he governs his subjects with the most absolute authority, his power over their lives and property being altogether uncontrouled.

7. Egypt is divided into three great parts, viz. Bahri, or Lower Egypt ; Vostani, or Central Egypt ; and Said, or Upper Egypt ; which again are subdivided into sixteen provinces.

8. The names of these provinces, together with their chief towns and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table :

Provinces.		Chief Towns.	Estimated Population.
BAHRI, OR LOWER EGYPT :	Bahri -	Alexandria, or Iskenderieh	15,000
	Rosetta -	Rosetta, or El Rashid -	20,000
	Menouf -	Menouf -	4,000
	Garbieh -	Mehalet el Kebir -	7,000
	Damiatta -	Damiatta -	30,000
	Mansoura -	Mansoura -	4,000
	Sharkieh -	Belbeis -	5,000
	Kelioub -	Kelioub -	4,000
	Cairo -	Cairo, or Mesr el Kahira -	230,000
VOSTANI, OR CENTRAL EGYPT :	Faïoum -	Medinet el Faïoum -	7,000
	Atfieh -	Atfieh -	4,000
	Benisouef -	Benisouef -	6,000
	Minieh -	Minieh -	5,000
SAÏD, OR UPPER EGYPT :	Es-Siout -	Es-Siout -	20,000
	Girgeh -	Girgeh -	8,000
	Ghouft, or -	Ghouft -	5,000
	Thebes -	Thebes -	5,000

9. Egypt, from its proximity to Arabia, was one of the first countries which fell under the Saracen yoke, having been completely reduced to obedience in the year 640, by Amrou, the famous general of Omar. It was at first exposed to cruel ravages, but as the policy of the Califs improved, it became once more a flourishing state, and the Soldans or Sultans of Egypt, as its viceroys were then termed, were amongst the most powerful of Eastern potentates. The Saracens retained possession of this country until Saladin, A. D. 1174, established the empire of the Turks in Africa, which lasted till A. D. 1250, when it gave way to that of the Mamelukes. These people, called also Mamlouks and Mammalucks, derived their name from the Arabic word *mamluc*, signifying one under the dominion of another, or a subject bought with money : they were Circassian and Georgian slaves, who having been made prisoners by the Mongols during their destructive campaign in the countries at the foot of the Caucasus, were purchased in large numbers and at a cheap rate by one of the Sultans of Egypt, as soldiers of tried courage and remarkable beauty. These the Sultan designed to be his guard and marine, and by training them up to military exercises, he soon obtained a body of the handsomest and best soldiers in the East, though at the same time, as experience soon taught him, the most mutinous. This soldiery, like the Prætorian bands of Rome, soon took upon themselves to give laws to their master. It was not, however, till after his death and the succession of his son to the throne, that they broke out into open rebellion, when, having murdered their new sovereign, and committed many other acts of violence, they established a dynasty of their own.

10. The first of their sovereigns was assassinated in the same year that he began to reign, and most of his successors met with a similar fate. Indeed, from their first establishment, the effects corresponded with the means.

Without any other bond of union than the interest of the moment, or any public right to authority but that of conquest, these Mamelukes, or military slaves, had no other rule of conduct and government than the violence of a licentious and insolent soldiery. The sword, the bow-string, or poison, public murder or private assassination was the fate of nearly the whole series of their tyrants, fifty of whom are enumerated in the space of two centuries and a half. They were, moreover, rather the plunderers than the rulers of Egypt; they filled it with scenes of violence, and extorted enormous sums from its inhabitants, without affording any of those benefits, or of that protection, due from a government to its subjects. At length, in 1517, Selim, sultan of the Ottomans, having taken and hanged Toman Bey, their last chief, put a period to that dynasty. Selim was contented with abolishing the monarchy of the Mamelukes, but suffered their aristocracy to retain their former power on certain conditions: the chief of these were, an annual tribute, obedience in matters of faith to the grand mufti in Constantinople, and the insertion of the name of the Ottoman emperors in the prayers, as well as on the coin. At the same time he projected such a form of government, that the power, being distributed amongst the different members of the state, should preserve such an equilibrium as might keep them all dependant on himself.

11. In this manner Egypt remained subject to the Turks till the close of the last century, when it was invaded by the French, who, however, were soon expelled from it by the British. This invasion considerably weakened the strength of the Mamelukes, and considerable bodies of Turks having marched into Egypt, the Pacha felt himself sufficiently independent to concert a plan for their destruction, which terminated in his inviting their chiefs to a feast, and treacherously massacring the greater part of them. Such of them as escaped fled to Upper Egypt, and having there united themselves with other tribes, regained a large share of power; but these new allies being subsequently dissatisfied with their conduct, joined the Turks, and the Mamelukes were then completely driven out of Egypt.* They afterwards established themselves at Dongola, higher up the Nile, where they cherished the hopes of regaining their ancient power, but the vigour and military abilities of the Pacha of Egypt have hitherto kept them dispersed.

12. The Copts, Cophts, or Coptites, as the name is variously written, are the true Egyptians, and derive their name from the ancient appellation of the country. Both history and tradition attest their descent from the people who were conquered by the Arabs, that is, from that mixture of Egyptians, Persians, and, above all, Greeks, who, under the Ptolemies and the Constantines, were so long in possession of Egypt. The Copts differ from the Arabs in their religion, which is Christianity, and which they embraced at an early period; but they are again distinct from other Christians by their opinions, which are those of the Eutychians or Monophysites. Their adherence to these opinions has exposed them to the persecution of the other Greeks, and thus they are rendered irreconcilable enemies. The Copts, however, have at length expelled their rivals; and as they have been always intimately acquainted with the interior of the country, they are become the depositaries of the registers of the lands and tribes, as well as the intendants, secretaries, and collectors of government. Despised by the Turks whom they serve, and hated by the peasants whom they oppress, they form a kind of separate class, about a quarter of a million in number, the head of which is the writer to the principal *Bey*.

13. Ever since the Saracen conquest the Copts have had churches, priests, bishops, and a patriarch, who resides at Old Cairo though he takes his title

from Alexandria. In their worship they blend a number of superstitious customs, which have been transmitted to them from their ancestors, and which they obstinately retain, with many Mahometan observances, such as frequent prostrations during divine service, &c. They have likewise, at different times, made several re-unions with the Latins, but always in appearance only, and under some pressing necessity of their affairs. The monastic life is in great esteem amongst the Copts: those of them who adopt it make a vow of celibacy, renounce the world, and live with great austerity in deserts; they are obliged to sleep in their clothes and their sandals, on a mat stretched on the ground, and to prostrate themselves every morning a hundred and fifty times, with their face and breast on the earth. They are all, both men and women, of the lowest class of the people, plunged in the most deplorable ignorance, and living entirely on alms.

14. The great establishment of the Coptic monks is in the Natron Valley, called after the name of a famous saint, denominated Macarius, and is distinguished by the appellation Zaidi el Baramous. It is an enclosure of high walls without any gate, persons entering or leaving it being hoisted up and lowered down by means of a strong rope and pulley; within the walls there is a kind of small fort, surrounded by ditches over which is built a draw-bridge. In this little fort are, a church, a cistern, provisions, and every thing for enabling the monks to stand a long siege when pressed by the Arabs: there also they keep their books, written in the Coptic language, which they cannot on any consideration be persuaded to part with, although they never read them, but suffer them to lie on the ground eaten by insects and covered with dust. The residence of the Copts, however, is almost exclusively in Upper Egypt, where whole villages are composed of them.

15. Alexandria, or Iskenderieh as it is called by the Turks, is situated at the North Western extremity of Egypt, close to the borders of the great Libyan Desert, and upon a long narrow neck of land between the Mediterranean Sea and L. Marroul. It has lost all the grandeur of the ancient capital of Egypt, upon the site of which it stands, but even in its state of decay it is still, to Europeans, the most interesting of the cities of Egypt. The commerce of Alexandria, though comparatively inconsiderable, includes a great part of what the European states carry on with Egypt. It was at first nearly monopolized by the Venetians and Genoese, and was once of very great extent, from the circumstance of much of the Indian merchandize being transported down the Nile to it, after having been brought up the Red Sea to Berenice, and so across the desert to the banks of the river: subsequent to the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, Alexandria declined rapidly. Alexandria contains about 15,000 inhabitants.

16. The houses of Alexandria, like most of those in The Levant, have flat terraced roofs; its streets, narrow and awkwardly disposed, have neither pave-

ment nor police; the eye of the traveller is arrested by no handsome public or private edifice; and but for the ruins of the old city, there would be nothing to attract the traveller's attention. Of these, by far the most remarkable is that called Pompey's Pillar, which has been reckoned by some the finest Corinthian column in the world; its height is about 95 feet, its mean diameter about eight, and it is composed of three pieces of granite, one of which serves for the pedestal, another for the shaft, and the third for the capital. It is generally believed to have been erected by Cæsar to commemorate his victory over Pompey, but this derivation seems very uncertain, and the opinions respecting both its origin and date are various and conflicting. The next most remarkable objects are the two obelisks, vulgarly called Cleopatra's Needles; their height, which is equal, is said to be 58 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and the breadth of each side of their base seven feet. They are composed each of a single block of granite, entirely covered with hieroglyphics; one of them has been presented to the King of England. The aqueducts and catacombs of Alexandria are likewise on a very large scale, though they form but a small portion of those extensive ruins of the ancient metropolis, amongst the corroded relics of whose temples and palaces no living creatures are now to be met with but owls, bats, and jackals.

17. Rosetta, or El Rashid as it is called by the Turks, is situated at the mouth of the left branch of the Nile, or that arm of the river which forms the Western boundary of the Delta. It appears to have been built by one of the Califs, and was for a long time a very inconsiderable place; but as the canal, which connected Alexandria with the Nile became impassable through neglect, Rosetta rose gradually in importance as a *dépôt* for the merchandise which was brought down the river. The foreign trade of Egypt is still carried on from the port of Alexandria, but Rosetta is the great medium of communication between it and Cairo, and is a larger and more populous city. Damietta stands near the Eastern mouth of the Nile, about six miles above its junction with the sea, and only a small distance from the shores of L. Menzaleh; it carries on an extensive traffic with Syria, Cyprus, and other parts of the Turkish Empire, and is often reckoned the key of Egypt on this side. During the middle ages its possession was hotly disputed between the Crusaders and the Saracens, which terminated in its being burned to the ground: it was, however, soon afterwards rebuilt, somewhat higher up the river. The general appearance of Damietta is as picturesque as that of any Egyptian town not dignified by the remains of antiquity; the houses are built in the shape of a crescent along the banks of the river, and are mostly very high: the walls of the town, formerly so strong, are now in ruins, and the two modern forts by which it is now guarded, could offer but little resistance to any attack.

18. Cairo, or Grand Cairo as it is sometimes styled, the metropolis of all Egypt, is called by the natives Mesr el Kahira, or sometimes simply Mesr: it is situated about a mile from the Eastern side of the Nile, a few leagues above the commencement of the Delta, on the canal of Kalisch, which is derived from the river and traverses the whole city. Cairo is reckoned the first city in the Ottoman Empire after Constantinople; it contains about 230,000 inhabitants, though there are

not wanting accounts which increase its population to three or four times this number. It is about eight miles in circuit: the streets are extremely narrow, crooked, dirty, and without pavements, and the widest of them, though it traverses the whole city, would be considered only a lane in Europe.

19. Cairo is said to have been founded A. D. 973, by one of the generals of Moez, the first of the Fatimite califs; but about two centuries afterwards it was enlarged by Saladin, who surrounded it with walls, when it became the capital of Egypt, and the centre of its commerce. At the beginning of the 15th century, in consequence of the Saracens having despised and neglected Alexandria, Cairo became the richest and most flourishing city in the whole country, and was not thought to be surpassed by any other city in the world: it was the common storehouse of Asiatic and European commerce, prior to the circumnavigation of the Cape of Good Hope, and its traffic with other nations extended from the Strait of Gibraltar to the farthest limits of India. The houses of the poor in Cairo are nothing but huts, built of mud and unburnt bricks, those of the better sort are of soft stone, two or three stories high, having all flat roofs with terraces of stone or tile. The architectural ornament of the city has been chiefly bestowed upon the mosques and the tombs of the Mamelukes, some of which are very elegant and magnificent: the castle or citadel is finely situated on a rock of considerable elevation, and is nearly a mile in circuit, but the greater part of it is in a very ruinous condition.

20. About two miles to the S. of Cairo stands the town of Old Cairo, now a place of very little consequence, being chiefly inhabited by the Copts who reside in this part of Egypt, and by a few Jews: it was formerly called Fostat, i. e. *the tent*, from the troops of the Calif Omar having encamped here, in the seventh century, during their conquest of the country. About 64 miles to the Eastward of Grand Cairo, stands Suez, at the head of the Western arm of the Red Sea called the Sea of Suez, and at the Southern extremity of the Isthmus to which it has communicated its name, and which forms the connecting boundary between the two continents of Asia and Africa. It was formerly a very flourishing place, being at once the emporium of the trade with India, and the rendezvous of the numberless pilgrims, who, from various parts of the Turkish Empire, resorted to Mecca; hence, though the stationary population was never large, Suez has frequently appeared to contain even more inhabitants than Cairo. It is now a miserable and ruinous place, without walls, and with but few inhabitants; the surrounding country is a complete desert, which makes the town entirely dependent upon Cairo for its provisions, and its situation upon the Red Sea is such, that vessels cannot approach it nearer than two miles and a half.

21. Above the Delta, the valuable part of Egypt consists merely of a narrow belt of land, extending on both sides of the Nile, enclosed between two ridges of mountains, and not exceeding fifteen miles in breadth, whilst in some places it does not amount to a tenth part of this extent. The oasis of Faioum, situated to the left or West of the river, forms the only great exception to this: it consists of a valley nearly environed by hills, and containing a lake of some extent, known as the Birket el Keroun or Quorn, i. e. *the Lake of the Horn*. This little territory, which was once cultivated like a garden, owed its exuberant fertility to the waters of the Nile being conducted over it by means of several artificial canals, but these, under the oppressive and

tumultuous despotism of the Crescent, have been sadly neglected, and hence much of this once fertile province is rendered totally unproductive. The chief town of the district, also called Faioum or Medinet el Faioum, is a place of some little importance, though its ancient wealth and grandeur have entirely disappeared. Es-Siout is situated on the left or Western bank of the Nile, in the midst of a very productive country, and not far from the centre of Egypt. It is a large manufacturing town, but derives most of its importance from its being the rendezvous of the caravans which proceed Southwards into the interior of Africa, to Darfur and the Negro kingdoms on the banks of the Nigir.

22. Ghouft, Copht, Keft, or Kuft, as the name is variously written, stands on the Eastern bank of the Nile, at that part of its course where it approaches nearest to the Red Sea. It was anciently called Coptos, and was the great point of communication between the river and the Arabian Gulf, goods being landed and shipped at the port of Berenice upon the shores of the latter: it has now, however, fallen into decay and comparative insignificance, most of the commerce with the Red Sea having been transferred to the neighbouring town of Gheneh. In the early times of Christianity, this city became famous as the great resort of the new converts in times of persecution, but it is said that they were compelled to retire to the grottoes of the neighbouring mountains, to avoid the remorseless fury of the savage Diocletian. Cosseir the great port on the Red Sea, by means of which the communication is now kept up between Egypt and the continent of Asia, lies to the Eastward of Ghouft at a distance of about 70 miles: it is an inconvenient and neglected place, deriving what little consequence it possesses from the constant transit of passengers and merchandize, and is situated in such a barren country, that its inhabitants obtain many of the means of life from the opposite coast of Arabia. The border town of Egypt towards Nubia is Es-Souan: it stands on the right or Eastern bank of the Nile, a little below the Cataract called Es-Shellaaale, and is an inconsiderable place, possessing much less strength and fewer means of defence, that its situation on the frontiers appears to demand.

NUBIA.

23. Nubia is bounded on the N. by Egypt, on the E. by the Red Sea, on the S. by Abyssinia, Kordofan, and Darfur, and on the W. by the great Libyan Desert: it contains about 311,200 square miles, (of which, however, only those portions traversed by the Nile are cultivated), and its population is estimated at 2,000,000 souls. It is occupied by a number of independent Arab tribes, some of whom reside in towns and support themselves by manufactures or commerce of the most simple kind, others cultivate the ground, but by far the greater number of them roam over the extensive deserts of which the country is chiefly composed.

24. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. The great range of mountains mentioned as traversing the E. part of

Egypt betwixt the R. Nile and the Red Sea, likewise runs Southward through Nubia, increasing in altitude towards the frontiers of Abyssinia. The Nubian valley of the Nile, also, is bounded in the same way as the Egyptian, excepting that the ridges are not quite so regularly disposed : they contain many lofty points which it is not necessary here to particularize, and form, for the most part the limits between the desert and the cultivated ground. The R. Nile runs from S. to N. through the centre of Nubia, and is the great source of fertility to the country. Near the frontiers of Kordofan, at the town of Halfaia, the Bahr-el-Abiad or *White Nile* and the Bahr-el-Azergue or *Blue Nile*, become one river : the latter is increased a little below Sennaar by two tributaries named Rahad and Dender. Some distance below the junction of the White and Blue rivers the Nile is joined by the R. Atbara, otherwise called Tacazze and Sitteet ; this river rises in Abyssinia near Gondar. The Red Sea washes the Eastern side of Nubia, and contains several bays and capes of little importance.

25. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The Nubians all profess the Mahometan religion, but they have combined with it many pagan superstitions, and some few hardly distinguishable remains of the Christian faith, which was introduced amongst them at a very early period, and which they appear to have maintained down to the 12th century, or even later. All the governments of Nubia are entirely despotic, though their power is considerably weakened by the number of petty chiefs, whose subjection constitutes the community and who within the precincts of their own little districts, are even more violent and arbitrary than their superior.

26. It is not easy to discover what constitutes the uniting principle betwixt the several independent states and tribes, of which Nubia is composed, or whether there be any excepting that of a similarity in their petty governments, the weakness of which, when contrasted with the powerful countries around them, may lead to a defensive bond of union : several of the tribes are engaged in almost perpetual feuds, which frequently lead to sanguinary acts of violence, and are only forgotten upon the appearance of some common enemy.

27. Four great divisions are readily distinguished in

Nubia. These are Turkish Nubia, which extends from the frontiers of Egypt to Wady Halfa, or the Second Cataract of the Nile, and is subject to the Turkish viceroy of Egypt; the Kingdom of Dongola, which extends along the great river from Wady Halfa to the banks of the Blue Nile, the Tacazze, and Mareb; the Kingdom of Sennaar, which occupies the Southern part of the country as far as the frontiers of Abyssinia; and the territory of the Bedjas, extending along the shores of the Red Sea.

28. Besides these there are a number of roving Arab tribes, who preserve an actual state of independence on each side of the Nile, though many of them occasionally acknowledge the supremacy of any chief or king, on the borders, or within the limits, of whose dominion they may have found it convenient to encamp. The Nubians are almost all black, though their appearance differs materially from that of Negroes; but the Arab tribes still preserve the peculiar complexion of their race, excepting in those few instances where they have intermarried with the natives.

29. **TURKISH NUBIA** extends along the R. Nile, from Es-Souan on the frontiers of Egypt to Wady Halfa, or The Second Cataract: it is composed of a narrow valley about 190 miles long, and generally not more than six or eight miles broad, which is watered by the river, and is the only part of the country capable of cultivation, the rest being a mere desert.

30. It is governed by a number of chiefs, independent of each other, but all subject to the pacha of Egypt, to whom they pay an annual tribute; they are kept in obedience by certain Turkish troops, who are distinguished from the natives by the name of Osmanlies, and who, from having been so long garrisoned in all the chief towns and forts, frequently contest the actual possession of the country with the Nubians themselves. The two chief places are Dir and Ibrim, both situated on the right or Eastern bank of the Nile: neither of them is of much consequence, but the latter is defended by a castle, which, though it possesses little strength, is found sufficient to overawe the people.

31. **THE KINGDOM OF DONGOLA**, or Dankala as the Arabs call it, occupies the central part of Nubia, being bounded on the N. by Turkish Nubia, on the E. by the Nubian Desert and the territory of the Bedjas, on the S. by the Kingdom of Sennaar, and on the W. by the great Libyan Desert. It lies principally along the banks of the Nile, about as far Southward as the union of its two great branches. Maragga or New Dongola, the present capital of the kingdom, is situated on the left or Eastern

bank of the Nile, not far from the great Southern bend and contains about 6,000 inhabitants: it is a place of very little importance, excepting what attaches to it as the residence of the king or superior chief, having none of those ruined temples, and other ancient edifices about it, which form the only striking objects in the rudely built towns along the upper course of the river.

32. The Kingdom of Dongola is divided into several districts, each governed by a chief, whose power is absolute within his own little territory, though he is himself in a manner dependant on the sovereign: the names of the principal of these districts are, Batn el Hadjar, Sukkot, Dar Mahaas, Dongola Proper, Dar Sheghya, Dar Erbatap, Berber, Chandi, and Halfaia. This country suffered much from the incursions of the Mamelukes, when they were driven out of Upper Egypt; they maintained themselves here in security and independence for some time, and were rapidly concentrating their scattered and exhausted forces, when the Turkish Pacha, not long since, attacked them in their retreat, destroyed many of their towns, and reduced to a sort of ephemeral subjection every petty prince in the kingdom. Old Dongola, the former capital of the country, is about 60 miles farther Southward than New Dongola, close on the extremity of the bend of the Nile. The Berbers are cantoned about the junction of the Tacazze with the Nile; their chief town is Goos. Higher up the river is Chandi or Chendi, within the island of Atbara, anciently called Meroë; it was once a place of some consequence, and was much frequented by the caravans travelling between Egypt and the interior, but it was nearly destroyed about ten years since by the troops of the Pacha, and is now merely a halting-place. Some distance above it is the town of Halfaia, close on the borders of Sennaar, and near the junction of the Blue and White Rivers: it contains about 5,000 inhabitants.

33. THE KINGDOM OF SENNAAR is bounded on the N. by Dongola and the roving Arab tribes of the Nubian Desert, on the E. by the Red Sea, on the S. by Abyssinia, and on the W. by Kordofan and the Great Libyan Desert. It is by far the most important and settled of all the states into which Nubia is divided. Sennaar, the capital of the kingdom, stands on the left bank of the Bahr el Azergue or Blue Nile, and is said to contain 100,000 inhabitants, but this number is thought to be considerably overrated.

34. The kingdom of Sennaar is so powerful that it has often subdued several of the surrounding territories, and prosecuted successful wars both against Abyssinia and Dar-Fur. The government is more fixed than that of any other Nubian state, but it is by no means less oppressive: the king is elected by the chief officers of the army, and not only makes his acts and decisions subservient to their will, but can be put to death by their command whenever they decree that his services are no longer necessary to the good of his country. The religion of the people is Mahometanism; but it con-

tains many traces of Christianity, which was professed here to a much later period than it was in the lower districts. The kingdom of Sennaar was founded at the beginning of the 16th century, by a body of Shillook negroes, who descended from their settlements on the upper course of the Bahr el Abiad into the low country of Sennaar, and, having subjected or driven out the Arab population, founded the kingdom which they have ever since maintained. The town of Sennaar is large, but the houses are in general miserable huts, built of clay with a mixture of straw, to defend them against the fury of the tropical rains; the king's palace, which is the only edifice in the least worthy of such a name, is surrounded with a brick wall; but its various buildings are run up without any order, though there is some attempt at magnificence in their interior. To the E. of Sennaar lie the towns of Teawa and Beyla; and still farther in the interior is Mandera, the old capital of the country, now reduced to ruins.

35. THE BEDJAS dwell in the Eastern part of Nubia, along the shores of the Red Sea, and are more powerful than any of the Arab tribes who wander over the country between the Nile and the sea. Nearly the whole of this extensive tract is excessively arid and sterile, and is hence generally termed the Nubian Desert; it is traversed by several ranges of mountains, some of which attain a considerable elevation, and is interspersed with oases, where a few springs of water bursting up from the ground spread a scanty cultivation round them, and furnish the only exception to the torrid waste.

36. The great road between Abyssinia and Egypt lies through this desert, and is therefore constantly traversed by the caravans of the two countries, who have no means of supporting themselves during the long and perilous journey, but such as they take along with them: there are several halting places on the road, the most important of which are Chiggre and Terfowa. Upon the shores of the Red Sea is the famous port of Suakin, or Osrok as it is also called, which is so large and commodious that 200 ships can conveniently ride there at anchor; it is situated on an island, and was taken possession of by the Turks at the same time that they reduced the opposite coast of Arabia to subjection; after which they made it their maritime capital in the Red Sea, and the station of a very powerful navy. In the 15th century it was a place of great wealth and importance, and one of the richest cities of the East; but it is now a mean and miserable place, and derives what little importance it possesses from being the channel by which the communication is kept up between Arabia and the interior of Africa. The Turks still maintain possession of Suakin, but their power is limited to the island on which it stands: its population amounts to 8,000 souls, of which number about two thirds are to be found in the continental suburb of El Geyf.

THE KINGDOM OF ABYSSINIA.

37. Abyssinia, called also Habbesh or Abex and sometimes Upper Ethiopia, is bounded on the N. by Nubia, on the E. by the Red Sea, on the S. and W.

by the unexplored regions of the interior; it contains about 241,500 square miles, and its population is estimated at 5,000,000 of souls.

38. **GREAT NATURAL FEATURES.** Abyssinia is in general a very mountainous country, and contains some of the most elevated land in the whole continent, as may be expected from its furnishing the Eastern source of the R. Nile. Amongst the principal ranges may be mentioned those of Assaule, Taranta, and Haramat, which traverse the E. part of the country, and terminate in Ras Bir, the Western point of the Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb. The lofty ranges of Samen and Gojam, in the N. W. part of Abyssinia, are covered with snow during great part of the year: the latter range contains the springs of the Eastern branch of the Nile, and the former those of its tributary the Tacazze.

39. The Bahr-el-Azergue or *Blue Nile*, about 70 miles below its source, traverses the L. of Tzana or Dembea, and winds its way round with a circuitous course into Sennaar, where it is joined by the rivers Tacazze, Rahad, Dender, and Mareb, all of which rise in the N. part of Abyssinia. Besides these we may mention the two rivers Anazo or Yasso and Hawush, which are in the E. part of the country towards the St. of Bab-el-Mandeb: they never reach the sea, being either lost in the sands, or led off in canals by the natives for the purposes of irrigation.

40. The E. part of Abyssinia is washed by the Arabian Gulf or Red Sea, which contains the three great Bays of Masuah, Howakil, and Amphila. The Red Sea is separated from that part of the Indian Ocean called the Sea of Bab-el-Mandeb by the Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb: this strait is formed by Ras Bir in Abyssinia and the opposite Cape of Bab-el-Mandeb in Arabia, and in its narrowest part is only 14 miles across.

41. **RELIGION.** The religion of the Abyssinians properly so called, in the present state of it, is unworthily dignified with the name of Christianity, and consists of a motly collection of traditions and tenets, which have not any influence on practice; and it is mixed up with so many Judaical observances, that it has been doubted by many whether they are Christians or Jews. They are generally considered as a branch of the Copts or Jacobites, with whom they agree in

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Kingdom of Abyssinia.

Southern part of the kingdom. These th
are all governed by separate princes, each
independent of the others, and maintains a
thority over the lives and property of his s
this absolute power is set at open defiance,
the number of savage tribes wandering over
out by every petty governor of a province, v
lect together a sufficient number of armed m
any act of rebellion which he may think it
commit.

45. Hence the whole country has for a long time pres
scene of war and bloodshed, in consequence either of the
tation of the savage tribes by whom it is surrounded, or of
treachery committed by its rulers. About 350 years ago
Abyssinia was in a much happier condition, and was then
sovereign alone, whose power was so firmly established, th
keep his savage neighbours in check, and to preserve his ow
that internal anarchy which has since proved their ruin.
time, however, a tribe, called the Galla, originally dwell
Abyssinia, broke in upon its limits, and gradually overpo
of the king, fought their way into the possession of the
the W. of the R. Tacazze, where they have ever since
ground. The legitimate sovereign was compelled to retire
Tigre, and soon saw the Southern provinces of Shoa and J
his sway, to be placed under the dominion of another ba
that his own dominions now form only a small portion in t
part of that extensive territory which was once governed b

46. Gondar, formerly the capital of Abys
the largest town in the whole country, is no
polis of the Galla; it is situated a few mil
of L. Tzana or Dembea. It is about ten
cuit, and is situated on a hill of conside
surrounded on all sides by a deep valley; th
of clay, with conical thatched roofs, and are
than one story high, with the exception
palace, which is the only building in the
deserving of notice. The population of G
of peace is estimated at 50,000 souls.

47. Adowa, the capital of Tigre, and the residence of
sinia since the
tance to the E.
only 8,000 or
country: it de
communication
carried on.
Red Sea, at N
Galla obtained possession of Gondar, is si
of Axum. It is a town of but little consec
9,000 inhabitants, and is surpassed by n
rives all its importance from being the char
between the coast and the interior is a
Iasuah is situated on a small island of the
the North Eastern extremity of Abyssinia,

sea-port of the country; it has a safe and excellent harbour, with a water deep enough for ships of any size to ride close to the island: its intercourse is chiefly carried on with the opposite coast of Arabia. Other great towns of Abyssinia, properly so called, are Dixan, Abba, Shire, Antalo, and Chelicut.

48. Emfras, on the shores of Lake Dembea, is the next most important town in the Galla country after Gondar; others are Tchelga, Tcherkin, and Sancha. The chief towns in the Southern part of Abyssinia are, Tegal, the capital of Shoa, and anciently of the whole kingdom; and Ankober, the capital of the province of Efat. The district of Adel or Adaiel, erroneously called the kingdom of Adel, occupies the South Eastern part of Abyssinia, and is divided amongst a number of barbarous tribes, completely independent of the other powers of the country and generally at war with them. The chief town Zeyla is situated on a bay of the same name at the Western extremity of the Sea of Bab-el-Mandeb.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE SOUTH EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

1. THE South Eastern coast of Africa, from the frontiers of Abyssinia to the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope, is parcelled out into a number of savage principalities and communities, concerning whom but little is known beyond their names. The whole country is traversed by a range of mountains running parallel with the coast, and becoming more elevated as they advance Southward towards the frontiers of Mocaranga, where they are named the Mountains of Lupata. There are no known rivers of any consequence on the coast, with the exception of the R. Quilimanci, which is supposed to rise in the Southern part of Abyssinia. Amongst the other rivers may be mentioned the Tuaca, Foonganey, Cuabo, and Mongalle. The last named river lies to the W. of C. Delgado, which is the only great promontory on this coast after C. Guardafui: to the Westward of it, some distance in the interior of the country is an extensive lake, called Maravi or Zembe, which is supposed to communicate with some of the rivers on the coast.

2. The country between the frontiers of Abyssinia and C. Guardafui is inhabited by a numerous and powerful

of people, called Somaulis, whose chief town is Berbera, where they carry on an extensive traffic with the surrounding tribes, many of whom resort to it by caravans from a great distance in the interior. To the S. of Guardafui is an extensive barren line of coast, called Hime or Hazine : and still farther S. are the states of Magadoxa, Brava, Juba, and Melinda.

The Portuguese had formerly many settlements upon the whole of this coast, but these have been sadly neglected, and are now either in a very low condition or altogether abandoned : their empire in this quarter of the globe, which once embraced a line of coast more than 2,000 miles in length, is now confined to a doubtful dominion over that part of it only, which extends from C. Delgado to C. Corrientes. The kingdom of Magadoxa or Mugdasho extends from the district of Ajan nearly as far Southward as the Equator, and is inhabited by a savage and jealous race of people, who are chiefly Mahometans, though there is a mixture of Abyssinian Christians : its chief town is also called Magadoxa, and is situated at the mouth of a large river. Still farther Southward is the little republic of Brava, with a town of the same name ; it was once tributary to the Portuguese, but since the decline of their power in these regions it has regained its independence. Below this are the kingdoms of Juba and Melinda, which were likewise formerly in the possession of the Portuguese, whose overbearing tyranny caused the inhabitants to revolt against them and expel them from the country : they are both flourishing little states, and are inhabited by a mixture of people, partly Mahometan and partly Pagan. Vasco de Gama, after having doubled the Cape of Good Hope, sailed along the African coast till he arrived at Melinda, where he was very courteously received by the natives, who supplied him with pilots to conduct him across the Indian Ocean to Malabar. The towns of Zatta and Lamoo, formerly in the hands of the Portuguese, are situated on islands of the same name, not far from the mouth of the R. Quilmanici.

The name of Zanzibar, or Zanguebar, is vaguely applied to a large tract of country between the R. Quilmanici and the head of the Mozambique Channel, though it is sometimes extended from C. Guardafui to the kingdom of Mozambique : it is said to signify literally the *entry of the Blacks*, the population consisting chiefly of Negroes, with a few Arabs who have mostly settled in the towns.

During the prosperity of the Portuguese their dominion extended over a greater part of it, but they have latterly been driven from most of their settlements in consequence of the native powers again asserting their independence, or from the ambitious encroachments of the Imam of Muscat. Zanzibar now contains several independent kingdoms and states, the principal of which are Mombas and Quilwa, or Keelwa. The island of Zanzibar is situated about midway down the coast, from which it is separated by a narrow strait of 20 miles ; it carries on a flourishing little commerce with all the surrounding country, as well as with Arabia, Madagascar, and the prin-

principal islands in the Indian Ocean, and is governed by a shekh appointed by the Imam of Muscat.

6. The country between C. Delgado, which is the Southern boundary of Zanzibar, and the R. Cuama, which forms the Northern frontiers of the empire of Mocaranga, comprises the two states of Querimba and Mozambique, both in a certain measure tributary to the Portuguese. The town of Mozambique is situated on an island of the same name, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants, one-sixth of whom are Portuguese; sadly degraded from its once flourishing condition, there is still some poor attempt made at displaying part of the government: its strength is by no means great, being barely sufficient to protect it from the incursions of the native tribes and the Madagascar pirates. The Strait between the coast of Africa and the island of Madagascar, is called the Mozambique Channel, from the town of Mozambique, which lies off the main land; the narrowest part of the strait, the nearest distance between them being 220 miles.

7. The name of Querimba is likewise applied to a long range of small and numerous islands lying off the coast of the former government, the principal of which are Ibo and Querimba; they were once very populous and in a flourishing condition, but owing to the depredations committed on them by the Madagascar pirates, and the excessive imbecility of the Portuguese, whose governor with a small guard resides at one of them, are now in a very neglected state. The name of Mozambique, or Moçambique, is properly speaking confined to the country N. of the R. Cuama or Zambeze, but the Portuguese sometimes use it to designate the whole of the dominions in this quarter of the globe, affecting to divide them into governments, viz. Querimba or Cabo Delgado, Mozambique, Quilimane, Sena, Sofala, Inhambane, and Laurenço Marquez. Their power in the last of these is, however, very questionable, as they are obliged to pay for a free passage through them by a yearly tribute, and can only maintain their frontiers on the great river Cuama by a line of forts and posts.

8. In the year 1498, Vasco de Gama, in his first voyage to India, arrived at Mozambique, and was at first well received, but the inhabitants subsequently discovered that the Portuguese were Christians, a plot was formed to destroy them, from which they judged themselves fortunate in escaping. Ten years afterwards they obtained permission to erect a fort at Mozambique, by means of which they soon became masters of the place and of the surrounding country. Its convenience as a station of refreshment for the vessels, and its proximity to the gold mines of Mocaranga, soon caused it to rise rapidly in importance, and it became at last the capital of their possessions in this quarter, which were all placed under governors subject to the viceroy of Goa in India. Quilimane, situated at the mouth of the R. Zambeze and on its Northern bank, is a great depot for merchandise and is to

well defended; large vessels here transfer their cargoes to pinnaces and boats, in which they are carried up the river into the interior, the products of the country being brought down in the same way and put on ship-board at Quilimane.

9. The empire of Mocaranga, called also Monomotapa, Senomotapa, and Motapa, extends from the great river Zambeze or Cuama on the North, as far Southwards as the R. Laurenzo Marquez which runs into Delagoa Bay. It is divided into several independent states or kingdoms, amongst which the sovereign of Motapa, from being the most powerful, takes precedence of the others; the principal of these states are Motapa, Manica, Botonga, Sofala, Sabia, and Inhambane.

10. The great range of the Lupata Mountains intersects the Western part of the country, and furnishes the sources of the rivers by which it is watered. The chief of these is the great R. Cuama or Zambeze, which rises on the W. side of the range, and flows thence with a circuitous course of 1,130 miles into the Mozambique Channel by several mouths. Below it are the rivers Tendanculo, Sofala, Sabia, Inhambane, and Laurenzo-Marquez, which all discharge themselves into the Mozambique Channel.

11. The people of Mocaranga are mostly negroes, though such as dwell towards the coast belong to the Egyptian or Arab race; its metropolis is Zambeze, towards the head of the Sofala R., but little is known concerning it. The town of Sofala itself is situated at the mouth of a river of the same name, and at the head of a little bay of the Mozambique Channel, called the Bay of Sofala. When the Portuguese first obtained settlements on this coast, Sofala was a place of great commercial importance, and became subsequently the channel by which they carried on most of their intercourse with the interior; but since they have constituted Mozambique their capital, Quilimane has become the great point of communication between them and the natives, and Sofala has sunk into a mere collection of huts; the Portuguese, however, still maintain a fort here, which holds the supremacy over those of Inhambane and Corrientes, lying farther to the South.

12. The country between the empire of Mocaranga and our Colony of the Cape of Good Hope is inhabited by a set of Pagan people, all belonging apparently to one race, but governed by separate chiefs, who are entirely independent of each other; they are all black, but differ materially both from the Negroes and the Hottentots. The chief of them are the Hambonas, who dwell upon the shores of Delagoa Bay; the Mambookies; the Tambbookies; and the Kaffers or Koussis, the most powerful of them all, who are separated from the Colony of The Cape by the little river Keisikamma, and have often made many very mischievous attacks upon our settlements there. Part of this coast is called the coast of Natal, in consequence, as it is said, of the Portuguese having first sailed along it on Christmas day.

13. MADAGASCAR, or Madecasse as it is also called is one of the largest islands in the world, being the fourth in size, and containing 177,200 square miles; its population is vaguely estimated at 2,800,000 souls. It lies nearly in a North and South direction, opposite that part of the coast of Africa which extends from C. Delgado to C. Corrientes, its greatest distance from the mainland being about 550 miles. Very little is known about the towns in the interior of Madagascar, the most important of which are Antsianak, Fidami Ancova, and Ambatamba: of these Ancova is situated about the centre of the island, and is said to contain 25,000 inhabitants.

14. The inhabitants of Madagascar are of a variety of races, much intermingled with each other, though that of the real negroes is readily distinguishable in all parts of the island: the chief classes, however, are of various shades of white and olive, some of them claiming their descent from the Arabs, and others from the Jews; the former profess the Mahometan religion, but by far the greater part of the islanders are Pagans. Madagascar is divided into several petty districts, each in possession of a different chief, whose chief is independent of all the others: the general sovereign is chosen from amongst the nobility of the country, and is invested with supreme authority. Some of the tribes inhabiting the Northern part of the island, as the Sacalaves and Maratis, are pirates, and live almost entirely by committing all sorts of depredations upon the neighbouring islands and

15. The Northern extremity of the island is called C. Ambre, the Southern point C. St. Mary: between them, through the whole length of the island, extends a lofty range of mountains known to the natives by various names according to the districts through which it passes. By this range the rivers of the island are divided into two classes, those which flow into the Mozambique Channel and those which run into the Indian Ocean: the chief amongst the former are the Dartemont, Parcelas, and Antsianak; amongst the latter are the Tantamane, Anakimoussy, and Maridam. There are some excellent and commodious harbours on the coast of Madagascar, as British Sound, Antongil Bay, and the Bay of St. Luce, on the Eastern side; and Passandava, Narreenda, Majambo, Bembatooka, and St. Augustine's Bays, on the Western side. The French established settlements at various periods on different parts of the island, but they were generally driven from them by the jealous hostility of the natives; the most permanent of them was that of Port Dauphin, to the E. of C. St. Mary, which, together with their other establishments in this quarter of the globe, fell into the hands of the British during the last war.

16. THE COMORO ISLANDS lie about midway between the North Western extremity of Madagascar and the opposite coast of Africa: they are four in number, viz. Angarija, or Gt. Comoro as it is also called, Mohilla, Johani or Anjouan, and Mayotta, containing unitedly about 1,000 square miles and 30,000 inhabitants. The inhabitants are chiefly black, but there are some Arabs amongst them, who have spread the doctrines of Mahomet over the islands: they are uncivilized, but remarkably gentle and harmless.

17. MAURITIUS, or the Isle of France, and I. BOURBON, lie about 450 miles to the Eastward of Madagascar; the former belonging to the English, the latter to the French: they are nearly the same in size and population, Mauritius containing 410 square miles and 90,000 inhabitants, and Bourbon 520 square miles and 85,000 inhabitants. Bourbon is the more fertile, but the convenient harbours of Mauritius render it the more important possession.

18. There is an extensive and widely dispersed group of islands lying off the North Eastern extremity of Madagascar, the chief of which are, Juan de Nova, the Cosmoledos, Albadra, and Natal, with the Mahe and Chagos archipelagos, all of which belong or are tributary to the British. The principal island of the Mahe, or Seychelles archipelago as it is also called, is likewise known by the name of Mahe or Seychelles; it is of no great extent, and does not contain more than 3,000 inhabitants; but it is fruitful and very commodious place.

THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

19. The territory of the Cape of Good Hope belongs to the British. It is bounded on the E. by Kaffraria, or the country of the Kaffers; on the S. by the Indian Ocean; on the W. by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the N. by the desert regions lying along the Southern banks of the Orange River. It contains 94,400 square miles, and about 150,000 inhabitants, of whom two thirds are Hottentots or negroes, and the remainder Europeans: it has derived its name from the great Southern promontory of Africa, so called, or sometimes, by way of eminence, The Cape.

20. This famous Cape, which next to the discovery of America, forms the greatest event in modern maritime history, was first visited by a Portuguese squadron, under the command of Bartholomew Diaz, in 1487, and was then named Cabo Tormentoso, from the tempestuous nature of the sea which is generally rolling off it, and which deterred its first discoverers from proceeding farther. The enterprising king of Portugal, however, entertaining no doubt of his having found the long desired route to India, discarded the name of the *Cape of Tempests* for one of better omen, and gave it the appellation by which it is at present known: he likewise equipped another squadron, confided it to the command of Vasco de Gama, who in the year 1497 surmounted all the difficulties which had deterred his predecessor, doubled the Cape, and had the glory of being the first who in a European vessel sailed over the Indian Seas. But the Portuguese never formed any permanent settlement at the Cape of Good Hope, though they generally touched at it in all their future voyages to India. The Dutch first fixed upon it at the beginning of the 17th century as a station of refreshment for them, and began about fifty years afterwards to colonize the neighbouring territory: they soon succeeded in driving the few inert and savage natives into the interior, or in reducing them to slavery, and by degrees extended the Cape Colony nearly to its present limits. It was taken from them by the English during the late war, in the year 1795, but was restored to them at the peace of Amiens; on the renewal of hostilities, however, it once more fell into the hands of the English, in the year 1806, and has ever since remained in

our possession, the sovereignty of it having been confirmed to the king of Great Britain at the Congress of Vienna.

21. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. The territory of the Cape of Good Hope contains several elevated ridges of mountains, which traverse its whole extent from East to West. Some of the loftiest peaks of these are the Nieuwveld's-Bergen, the Sneeuwberg, the Compasberg, the Tarkaberg, the Zuureberg, and the Rietberg. In these mountains are found the sources of all those rivers by which the whole colony is watered. These are the Great Fish R., the Sunday R., the Camtoos R., the Gaurits R., and the Breede R., all of which flow into the Indian Ocean; the Berg R., and Oliphant's or Elephant's R., which run into the Atlantic Ocean; and the Zak R., which loses itself in the sand, and never reaches the sea. The Gariep or Orange R. likewise rises in these mountains, and after a Westerly course of 865 miles runs into the Atlantic Ocean; it is the longest river in Southern Africa, and is mostly beyond the limits of the Cape Colony.

22. The original inhabitants of the Cape of Good Hope are called Hottentots, and may be divided into three principal classes, the Hottentots properly so called, the Bosjesmans, and the Namaquas: they are all in a very low degree of civilization, and have been reduced to a state of servitude. They live for the most part in hemispherical huts, to a collective number of which the name of *kraal* is applied: the communities of these different kraals seldom intermarry with each other, but preserve themselves and their property entirely distinct, both from the influence and government of their neighbours. They are mostly pagans, though a few of them have been converted to the Christian faith by the indefatigable labours of European Protestant missionaries. The Bosjesmans, or Bushrangers, mostly dwell in the Northern parts of the colony, and may be placed in the lowest grade of man: they are a wild set of savages, who live by plunder and robbery, and when not thus employed pass away their time in the most beastly indolence. The Namaquas inhabit the North Western parts of the colony, and though superior to the Bosjesmans and to the Hottentots of the Southern districts, are still very uncivilized,

23. The whole colony of The Cape is divided into a number of provinces or districts, the boundaries of which are so ill-defined, that they are not known even to the inhabitants themselves. The chief of them are The Cape District, Clanwilliam, Tulbagh, Stellenbosch, Caledon, Zwellendam, George, Uitenhage, Albany, Graaf-Reynet, and Tarka: but besides these there are

Several others of inferior importance in the Northern parts of the country ; as the Bokkeveld, Hantam, Roggeveld, Nieuwveld, and the Great Karro, which last is an extensive and elevated plain, uninhabited by man or animal. The metropolis of the Colony is called Cape Town, and is situated at its South Western extremity, at the head of Table Bay, on a plain sloping downwards from the Table Mountain. It is the only place in the whole country worthy the name of a town, and is not thought to contain more than 20,000 inhabitants.

24. Cape Town derives all its consequence from its central situation with respect to Europe and the East, and must be looked upon as important, not so much in consequence of any innate value the surrounding country possesses, but as a valuable naval and military dépôt, and as a commodious station for the transport of merchandize. It is defended by a castle of considerable strength, and contains many handsome churches : the houses are in general well built, and some of them are comparatively magnificent. The harbour is tolerably secure from September to May, whilst the S. E. winds prevail ; during the rest of the year, when the wind blows generally from the opposite quarters, ships are obliged to resort to False Bay, on the opposite side of the peninsula. This peninsula includes the three remarkable and lofty mountains, known by the names of the Table Mountain, the Lion's Head, and the Lion's Rump ; and it is its Southern extremity which forms the bold promontory of the Cape of Good Hope. Saldanha Bay and St. Helena Bay are two inlets of the Atlantic to the N. of Table Bay ; but though furnishing convenient harbours they are little visited. To the Eastward of False Bay, on the Southern coast of Africa, there are several large bays, some of which are very commodious, though they are considerably exposed to the fury of the Southern Ocean ; the chief of them are, St. Sebastian Bay, Mossel Bay, Plettenberg's Bay, and Algoa Bay. The last mentioned is the Easternmost on this part of the coast, and is situated at the mouth of Sunday R. : upon its S. W. coast is the settlement of Fort Frederick.

25. Very little is known of the country to the Northward of the Cape Colony. It is inhabited by a number of uncivilized and pagan tribes, some of whom, as the Griquas, Koranas, and Bichuanas, are very populous and powerful, whilst others are equally weak and few in number : it is only of late years that their names have been made known, through the indefatigable exertions of some Protestant British missionaries. The chief town of the Griquas is Klaarwater, called also Karrikamma and Griqua Town, a few miles to the N. of the Gariep or Orange R. : this river has been already mentioned as the largest in the Southern part of the continent, which it nearly traverses from East to West, entering the Atlantic Ocean at C. Voltas. The capital of the Bichuanas, and the residence of their king, is Litaakun or Latakoo, containing about 15,000 inhabitants : beyond it to the Northward lies Kurreechane, the chief town of the Marootzies, and the most distant place known from the C. of Good Hope in this direction to which our knowledge extends.

26. The Western coast of Africa, from the limits of the Cape Colony to Lower Guinea, is remarkably sterile. There are neither towns nor settle-

ments upon it; its bays and anchorages, from their exposed situation, are of little value; and in the whole distance of about 900 miles, scarcely one spring of fresh water is to be met with. The Northernmost part of it, between C. Frio and C. Negro, is inhabited by a black nation called Cimbebas.

LOWER GUINEA.

27. The name of Lower Guinea has been applied, by way of distinction, to several separate kingdoms on the South Western coast of Africa, lying between the Gulf of Guinea and that long line of sterile coast stretching between them and the colony of the Cape of Good Hope. The whole of the interior is called Congo by the natives, and the same language, the same laws, and the same customs, prevail through every part of it. Though thus collectively named by Europeans and by themselves, these states are all independent of one another, and are governed by kings, whose power is despotic and generally hereditary: inferior to them are the numerous petty chiefs of the kingdom, whose power is undisputed within the limits of their own circumscribed territories, though they themselves acknowledge the paramount authority of the general sovereign. The inhabitants are mostly pagans. The principal kingdoms included under the appellation of Lower Guinea are, Benguela, Lubolo, Matamba, Angola, Congo, and Loango; these contain a superficial extent of about 295,200 square miles, and an estimated population of 4,000,000 souls.

28. The natives have somewhat in a less degree both the black colour and the characteristic features of the negro race, but the distinction is not prominent enough to admit of their being separated from the great African family. The Portuguese, in 1487, were the first to discover these regions, and their government subsequently sent over several large bodies of troops to conquer the country, together with numbers of missionaries to convert the natives. They have been unable, however, to effect any permanent establishments, excepting a few forts and factories for carrying on the slave trade, notwithstanding the victories which they boast to have obtained over the natives; and the English, who a few years since visited the countries on the borders of the Congo, did not find the smallest trace of any one of those numerous conversions, such long accounts of which were published by the missionaries of the Church of Rome. Very little is known concerning the interior of the country, for the Portuguese exclude all strangers with the most jealous care; and the natives themselves are so rude and barbarous, that they are scarcely capable of maintaining the usual relations of trade with European power. Since the abolition of the slave-trade within the sphere of English influence, Lower Guinea has become almost the exclusive source, from which these unfortunate victims of war and avarice are taken.

29. The principal river in Lower Guinea is the Zahir or Congo, which is 1,340 miles long; it has two arms, one of which rises to the N. of the Equator, and the other to the S. of it, both meeting at the town of Concobella: the Southern branch is likewise called Barbela. The other chief rivers are the Lelunda, the Loze, the Danda, the Coanza, the Moreno, the Gubororo, and the Bembarooghe.

30. Benguela is the Southernmost kingdom in Lower Guinea, and extends along the coast between the rivers Bembarooghe and Coanza. Its chief town New Benguela, or St. Philip de Benguela as it also called, stands about midway down its coast; it was built by the Portuguese, who have now made it one of their great places of trade on this coast, and hence it is generally touched at by all their vessels sailing to and from the East Indies. The two states of Lubolo and Matamba lie to the N. E. of Benguela, near the sources of the rivers Coanza and Barbela or Eastern Congo: the latter is inhabited by a bold race of savages, called Giagas or Cassanges, who are also to be met with in some of the other states, and whose adroit ferocity has rendered them the terror of this part of Africa.

31. The kingdom of Angola lies between the rivers Coanza and Danda, being bounded on the S. by Benguela, on the E. by Matamba and Lubolo, on the N. by Congo, and on the W. by the Atlantic: but the name of Angola is sometimes applied by the traders to the whole coast of Lower Guinea. Its chief town is St. Paul de Loando, which is situated on the coast, and contains about 18,000 inhabitants; it is the capital of all the Portuguese possessions in Lower Guinea, and is a well-built, handsome town. Between Angola on the S. and Loango on the N. lies the kingdom of Congo properly so called, the largest of all the states in this part of Africa; it is bounded on the N. and E. by the two arms of the Congo, called the Zahir and Barbela, on the S. by the R. Danda, and on the W. by the Atlantic Ocean. Its chief town, and the residence of the king, is St. Salvador, or Congo as it is likewise called, situated on the banks of the R. Lelunda, about 150 miles in the interior of the country: it has been represented as a very handsome place, and as containing nearly 40,000 inhabitants, a number which is thought to be considerably exaggerated.

32. The country subject to the sovereign of Loango lies to the N. of Congo, extending as far as the R. Sette, about 2° below the Equator; it is

bounded on the E. by the R. Congo, and on the W. by the Atlantic Ocean. Loango, or Booali as it is likewise named, the chief town and the residence of the sovereign, is situated on the seacoast, and is stated to contain 15,000 inhabitants; it was formerly a place of great consequence, from the trade carried on there in slaves, but there are several other towns in the same kingdom, which now share in the profits of the infamous traffic, as Cabenda, Cacongo, Kilongo, and Majumba.

COAST OF GUINEA.

33. The name of Guinea is applied to the whole extent of country between the R. Sette on the S. E., which lies about 2° below the Equator, to C. Mesurado on the N. W., in the neighbourhood of Sierra Leone: the territories included under this appellation comprehend a superficial extent of about 243,100 square miles, and their population is estimated at 8,000,000 souls. Some, however, extend the name as far to the N. W. as the R. Senegal; whilst others, again, confine it between C. Mesurado and Benin. The great inlet to the Atlantic Ocean to the South and West of it, between C. Palmas and C. Lopez, is called the Gulf of Guinea.

34. Guinea is commonly divided by Europeans into four parts, viz. the Grain Coast, the Ivory Coast, the Gold Coast, and the Slave Coast. The last of these extends from the Bight of Benin, round the head of the Gulf of Guinea, to the frontiers of Loango, and is subdivided into five parts, viz. the Slave Coast properly so called, the Coast or Kingdom of Benin, the Coast of Calabar or Kingdom of Waree, the Coast of Biafra, and the Coast of Gaboon. The inhabitants of this extensive line of country are all blacks, and are divided into a number of petty kingdoms, the limits and power of which are constantly varying with the success of the wars which they wage against each other: they are all pagans. Several of the European nations, as the English, French, Dutch, Danes, Swedes and Portuguese, had factories along this coast; but though they were once nearly fifty in number, by far the greater part of them are now abandoned or destroyed.

35. Some of the loftiest mountains in the whole continent of Africa are upon the Coast of Biafra: they are called the Cameroons M^s., the Qua M^s., and the Rumbi M^s., and are 13,000 feet high. The great range of the

M^s. of Kong bounds Guinea on the N., and is supposed to be the continuation of the Gebel Komri or **M^s.** of the Moon which traverse the E. part of Africa. The great R. Nigir or Quorra empties itself into the G. of Guinea, between Benin and Biafra, by several mouths; the chief of these are called the R. Formosa or Benin, the Calabars, the Cross R., the Bonny, and the R. del Rey. To the S. E. of the mouths of the Nigir are the rivers Cameroons, Campo, and Gaboon, concerning which nothing is known: and on the W. coast of Guinea are the smaller rivers Lagos, Popo, Bosempira, and Mesurado. The chief capes on the coast of Guinea are, C. Formosa, C. St. Paul, C. Three Points, C. Apollonia, C. Palmas, and C. Mesurado.

36. The Coast or country of Gaboon lies immediately above the kingdom of Loango, and is inhabited by several tribes, the knowledge of whom is involved in deep obscurity: it is watered by the R. Gaboon, which runs into the Atlantic opposite the I. of St. Thomas, between Cape Lopez and the Bay of Corisco. The Coast of Biafra lies between Gaboon on the S. and Waree on the N., and has communicated its name to the Bight of Biafra or head of the Gulf of Guinea, round which it may be described as extending: it includes many petty states. The capital of the country is also called Biafra, and is situated some distance in the interior. The Coast of Calabar, or Kingdom of Waree as it is sometimes termed, extends from Biafra on the E. to Benin on the W.; the principal towns and settlements on this coast are, Duke's Town, Bonny, New Calabar, and Waree. The Coast or Kingdom of Benin lies between Waree on the E., and the Slave Coast properly so called on the W.; from it an inlet of the Gulf of Guinea has obtained the name of the Bight of Benin. Benin, its chief town, is one of the largest native settlements on the whole coast, and is situated some distance up the country.

37. The Slave Coast, properly so called, extends between the R. Lagos on the E. which separates it from Benin, and the R. Volta on the W. which separates it from the Gold Coast: it obtained its name from the inhuman traffic there carried on between the Europeans and the natives, which was finally abolished by the British. It contains several distinct states or kingdoms, as Jaboo, Whidah, Ardrah, Popo, and Dahomey, which were formerly independent of one another; but the king of the last mentioned country has of late years reduced them all to subjection, and appointed a viceroy over them, whose ferocious and military tyranny now forms their only government. The capital of Dahomey is some distance in the interior: the other chief towns lie along the coast, and amongst them may be mentioned Badagry, Porto Novo, Whidah, and Great Popo.

38. The Gold Coast extends from the R. Volta on the E. to C. Apollonia on the W., where it confines with the Ivory Coast: it derived its name from the quantity of precious metal obtained there, which, however, has been very far overrated, though it has led to this part of Guinea being more visited than any other. The Portuguese, who, as has been already stated, were the first to explore the Western coast of Africa, established the

quarters, in this direction, at the Castle of El-Mina; their power was afterwards shared by the Dutch: but both were obliged to give way to the influence of the English, who, since the abolition of the slave trade here, have a firmer footing upon this coast than any other nation. The natives of the Gold Coast were formerly divided into many independent states, the principal of which were Amina, Assin, Fantee, Ahanta, Warsaw, Dankara, and Ashantee. But the sovereign of the last mentioned country has of late years waged repeated and successful wars against several of the others, and reduced them to subjection: his own territories are situated far inland, Coomassie, the capital of Ashantee, being more than 100 miles distant from the Gulf of Guinea; but notwithstanding this, he has more than once fought his way to the sea coast, and shown much anxiety to enter into friendly relations with the Europeans. Cape Coast Castle is the capital of the British settlements on the Gold Coast; but forts and factories are also maintained by us at Accarah, Annamaboe, Dixcove, Succondee, Cape Apollonia, &c. The principal Dutch settlements are El-Mina and Axim.

39. The Ivory Coast extends from C. Apollonia on the E., as far Westward as the village of Growa near C. Palmas, which separates it from the Grain Coast; it has obtained its name from the great quantity of elephants' teeth, or ivory, brought down to the sea-shore from the interior. Though populous and thickly set with villages, its towns are few and inconsiderable, and are generally situated at the mouths of rivers called by the same names; the chief of them are Labou and Dromera. The inhabitants are amongst the most suspicious and untractable who are met with on the whole coast of Africa; they have prevented the Europeans from building any settlements on their low and open coast, and only trade with them under circumstances of jealousy and distrust.

40. The Grain Coast, the Westernmost part of Guinea, extends to the R. Mesurado, which separates it from the country commonly distinguished by the name of Senegambia. It is also called Malaguetta, and sometimes the Pepper Coast, and derived its appellation of the Grain Coast from a certain aromatic plant, which produces a fruit full of seeds, regarded by the Portuguese when they first landed on the coast as a delicious luxury, and hence named by them Grains of Paradise: as soon, however, as Europeans became familiar with the more exquisite aromatics of the East, this coarser one fell into disrepute. The ports and towns at which the traders carry on their intercourse with the natives, are very inconsiderable; the chief of them are, Settra Krou, Sanguin, the Sesters, and Bassas.

41. At the Eastern extremity of the Gulf of Guinea, or rather in that part of it called the Bight of Biafra, is the little island of Fernando Po, which now belongs to the English, who have lately formed a settlement there. To the S. W. of it lies Prince's I., which obtained its name from having been given to the Prince of Portugal: it was discovered by the Portuguese, who still keep possession of it. Lower down, under the Equinoctial Line, is the I. of St. Thomas, likewise belonging to the Portuguese; the inhabitants consist partly of negroes from the opposite coasts, and partly of the descendants of those Portuguese who were banished hither as well as to the neighbouring islands, upon their first discovery. To the S. W. of St. Thomas lies another Portuguese island, known by the name of Anno-Bon or Anna-Boa. Considerably farther to the S. W., in the centre of the Atlantic Ocean, and nearly mid-way between the C. of Good Hope and Sierra Leone, is the lofty and barren I. of St. Helena, which belongs to the English, and is generally touched at by ships bound to and from India. It has been rendered remarkable in consequence of its having been chosen as

the prison of Napoleon Bonaparte, who was sent hither by the allied sovereigns of Europe in 1815: he resided here till the year 1821, when he died of an internal cancer. To the N. W. of St. Helena is the I. of Ascension, which though entirely barren and uninhabited, is much frequented by ships on account of its many conveniences.

SENEGAMBIA.

42. The country distinguished by the name of Senegambia is bounded on the S. by Guinea, on the E. by Fouta, on the N. by the Great Desert of Sahara, and on the W. by the Atlantic Ocean: it includes a superficial extent of about 330,000 square miles, and a population vaguely estimated at 10,000,000 souls. The name is derived from those of the two rivers Senegal and Gambia, which are the chief sources of its fertility, though there are many other important ones by which it is watered, as the R. Grande, the Rokelle, and the Camaranca. All these rivers rise in the Western part of the great mountain-range of Kong, and run with a Westerly course into the Atlantic Ocean: the Senegal, or Ba-Fing as it is also called, is far the largest of them, being 1,640 miles long, and is increased by the waters of two tributaries named Faleme and Woolima. The chief capes of Senegambia are, C. Verde, C. S. Mary, C. Roxo, and C. Mount.

43. Senegambia is divided into a number of petty states and kingdoms, independent of each other, and constantly varying in their limits owing to the wars which they wage against each other. The inhabitants are mostly blacks, and are sunk in the lowest superstitions of paganism; many of them are Mahometans, having been converted by the Moors, who are still found wandering about different parts of the country. The Mandingoes are the most numerous and widely extended of all the native tribes of Senegambia; they are now found dispersed almost over the whole country, though they were once confined to the state of Manding, whence they derived their name. The Foulahs are another powerful race of negroes, and are said to have originally inhabited the country called Fooladoo, but they are now found scattered over several of the states in the centre of Senegambia. A third great race is that called the Jaloffs,

Yaloffs, or Oualoffs, who dwell, generally speaking, between the lower courses of the Senegal and Gambia, though they are also to be met with in many other parts of the country.

44. The names of the states and people included within the limits of Senagambia may be seen in the following table :

Western States.	Central States.	Eastern States.
Brack or Quallo.	Siratik.	Ludamar.
Tor.	Gedumah.	Beeroo.
Foutatoro.	Jafboo.	Kaarta.
Jaloffs.	Bondou.	Gankaran.
Bourbjaloffs	Kajaaga.	Fooladoo.
Damel or Kayor.	Kasson.	Jallonkadoo.
Baol.	Brooko.	Manding.
Sin.	Bambouk.	Wassela.
Barra.	Konkodoo.	Bambarra
Badibou.	Worada.	Masina.
Salum.	Dentila.	Kong.
Wooli.	Sadadoo.	Maniana.
Mandingoes.	Neola.	Baddoo.
Foulahs.	Tenda.	Kaffaba.

45. Amongst the chief towns of these states may be mentioned Jenar or Genne, in Masina ; Sego and Bammakoo in Bambarra, all three of which are on the banks of the Nigir : Kemmoo, the capital of Kaarta, and Benown of Ludamar ; Geba, in the country of the Mandingoes ; and Timboo, the capital of the Foulahs.

46. The English colony of Sierra Leone is situated on a peninsula near the mouth of the R. Rokelle, in the South Western extremity of Senegambia and on the borders of Guinea : it has derived its name from a long ridge of mountains infested with *lions*, which rises at no great distance from the Southern banks of the river, and terminates in C. Shilling, the South Western point of the peninsula. The population of the whole colony amounts to about 20,000 souls : the chief towns are Freetown, the capital, Regent's Town, Leopold, Charlotte, Bathurst, Kisse, &c. : a fort has been erected on Bance I. to command the navigation of the river.

47. The settlement of Sierra Leone was formed for objects of philanthropy, rather than for political or commercial advantage, the design being to colonize free negroes, and to promote the civilization of Africa. Hitherto, however, the advantages derived from it have not kept pace with the dangers and difficulties to which they have given rise ; although several towns have been regularly built, and many of the negroes have become industrious farmers, skilful mechanics, and enterprising traders, performing with propriety the

various duties of social life. Besides Sierra Leone, the English have other colonies on this coast, the principal of which is that at the mouth of the Gambia, the capital of which is named Bathurst, and is situated on the Southern side of the river. About five years since, the king of Barra, on the opposite shore of the Gambia, ceded to our government a long slip of territory, one mile broad, and about sixty long, with the exception of a small spot occupied by the French at Albreda.

48. The French colonies in these regions are commonly distinguished by the name of the Government of Senegal, as they lie principally on the banks of this great river. Their chief settlement is Ft. St. Louis, at the mouth of the river, where they carry on most of their traffic with the natives and the Moors, but they have also other establishments higher up the Senegal at Podor, St. Joseph or Galam, and St. Pierre. Besides these, they possess the island and fort of Goree, situated in the little bay which is formed by the promontory of C. Verde on its Southern side; Portudal and Joale between it and the Gambia; and Albreda, already mentioned as lying on the Northern bank of that river. The Portuguese likewise have a few settlements on the coast of Senagambia, the principal of which are Cacheo and Bissao, to the N. W. of the mouth of the Gambia.

SOUDAN OR NIGRITIA.

49. The Arabic name Soudan, which the Europeans render by the synonymous one of Nigritia or Negroland, signifies properly all the country inhabited by the Negroes, but it is chiefly restricted both by the Moors and Europeans to that part of it situated along the banks of the R. Nigir, with which the nations of Barbary maintain a commercial intercourse. It is thus bounded on the W. by Senegambia, on the N. by the Great Desert of Sahara, on the E. by Nubia, and on the S. by countries altogether unknown, in the neighbourhood of the Nigir and the Mountains of the Moon; its superficial contents may be taken at 955,000 square miles, and the number of its inhabitants at 20,000,000.

50. The whole country is very imperfectly known: it has been chiefly explored by enterprising and indefatigable travellers from amongst our own countrymen, but by far the greater part of them have fallen victims to their zeal for the promotion of knowledge. Soudan is divided into a number of petty kingdoms, governed by sovereigns whose despotism is proportionate to the ignorance of their savage subjects. These kingdoms are independent of each other; but, as is the case with all other negro states, they are constantly at war with one another, being ambitious of an increased territory, and

avariciously anxious for the profits which they derive from the sale of all their captives as slaves. About one-half of the inhabitants profess a very corrupted form of Mahometanism, and the others are pagans.

51. The great natural feature of Soudan is the R. Nigir, otherwise called Quorra, Quolla, and Joli-ba: it rises in the Western part of the M^t. of Kong, and runs thence N. E. through Lake Dibbie, near Tombuctoo, where it suddenly turns to the Southward and enters the Gulf of Guinea by several mouths. Its total length is about 2,200 miles and it is joined by four tributaries, viz. the Ba-Nimma, the Sackatoo R., the Makamia, and the Tahadda. The last mentioned river is supposed to connect the Nigir with the R. Shary which flows into L. Tchad. This lake is situated nearly in the centre of the whole continent, betwixt the states of Bornou, Begharmi, and Kanem; it receives the waters of the Yeou, the Shary, the Bahr-el-Gazel, and the Bahr-el-Feydh or the *irradiating river* as the name signifies. The last-named river communicates with Lake Fittre, which is formed by the R. Djyr or Misselad. It is by means of some of these great streams, concerning which so very little is known, that the native accounts represent the Nigir as being one river with the Nile; whether by an actual junction of the streams, or by an elevated lake whence their waters flow in different directions (*i. e.* the Nile to the North East, and the Nigir to the West as far as the R. Shary), remains yet to be demonstrated.

52. The principal kingdoms or states into which Soudan is divided, may be seen in the following table:

Western States.

Tombuctoo.
Borgoo.
Yariba.
Fundah.
Sackatoo.
Kashna.
Howssa.
Adamowa.

Eastern States.

Mandara.
Bornou.
Kanem.
Begharmi.
Saley, Waday, or Bergoo.
Fur.
Kordofan.

53. Tombuctoo, or Timbuctoo as it is also called, the great commercial emporium of the interior of Africa, is

situated near the North Western extremity of Soudan, about 12 miles from the Northern bank of the Nigir, its port upon which is called Kabra. It is a town of ancient foundation, having been built about the commencement of the 13th century, but it is neither so large nor so populous as it has till very lately been supposed, for its circuit is said not to exceed 3 miles, and the number of its inhabitants to be under 15,000. The population is chiefly composed of negroes, for the Moors who actually reside there are few: the houses are described as being generally mud-huts, crowded together in the midst of a barren and sandy desert. Tombuctoo owes all its importance to its central situation, which renders it the grand point of union betwixt the Moors in the Northern part of the continent, the negroes of Senegambia on the West, those of Soudan on the East, and of Guinea on the South; from all these countries caravans repair to it, and for the time very much add to the population and life of the town, which on their departure again relapses into its native dullness.

54. New Birnie, the capital of the kingdom of Bornou, is situated to the S. W. of L. Tchad, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants; it is a town of some importance, from its sovereign being one of the most powerful monarchs in the whole country, having at different times extended his conquests over all the surrounding states as far as Dar-Fur. Kanem lies to the N. of L. Tchad, its capital is Mao: Begharmi is on the opposite shores of the lake, and its chief town is also called Begharmi, or sometimes Mesna. Dar Saley or Waday is one of the most powerful kingdoms in all Soudan, and has rendered the neighbouring state of Kordofan tributary to it: its chief town is Cobbe, which is one of the principal channels of communication between the people of Nigritia and the Abyssinians, Nubians, and Egyptians.

TIBBOO AND TUARICK.

55. The Tibboo inhabit the Eastern part of that extensive desert country which lies between Soudan and the kingdoms on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea. They are bounded on the N. by Fezzan and Barca, on the E. by Egypt and Nubia, on the S. by Dar-Fur, Dar-Saley, Kanem, and Bornou, and on the W. by a line extending between the last mentioned country and Fezzan, which separates them from the Tuarick. They are not quite black, and differ altogether both in their appearance and manners from the negroes: they follow a roving, predatory life, and are divided into several tribes, who are constantly making war upon each other, and pillaging the surrounding countries: about one half of them profess the Mahometan religion in a very corrupt form, but the others are pagans. The principal tribes are the Tibboo of Febabo, dwelling on the borders of Barca and Fezzan; the Rock Tibboo or Rshade (so called from their houses being built in the rocks) whose chief town is Abo, a little to the S. of Fezzan;

the Tibboo of Bilma, and Tibboo of Gunda, towards the frontiers of Bornou; the Tibboo of Borgoo, whose chief town is Yen; and the Tibboo of Ama, near the borders of Waday.

56. The Tuarick inhabit the Western part of the great desert country of Sahara, being bounded on the N. by the Barbary States, on the E. by Fezzan and the territory of the Tibboo, on the S. by Howssa and Senegambia, and on the W. by the Moorish tribes dwelling along the coast of the Atlantic Ocean. They are a powerful race of people, and their skin is much whiter than that of their Eastern neighbours the Tibboo; they speak the Berber language, and are all Mahometans. They lead a wandering and Nomadic life like the Arabs, and live upon pillage; they are divided into many tribes, and are always at war with the different kingdoms of Soudan, whence they carry off vast numbers of captives and sell them as slaves. The caravans traversing their territory from the Barbary States to the countries on the Nigir, are obliged to pay them a certain tribute to secure themselves a free and unmolested passage. The principal Tuarick tribes are those of Ghraat on the S. W. frontiers of Fezzan; the Kolluvi, who possess the kingdom of Asben to the N. of Bornou; the Tuarick of Agadez; and the Tagama Tuarick, immediately above Howssa.

57. The Moors and Arabs who wander about the Westernmost parts of the Sahara, are divided into many branches and tribes, as the Trasata, Labdessebas, Wadelims, Lodajas, Mongearts, Hihil, &c. Some of them trade in the gums which are produced in the forests of the country, but they are all in the practice of plundering such vessels as are wrecked on the coast, and selling the crews into slavery.

KINGDOM OF FEZZAN.

58. Fezzan touches to the N. upon the Regency of Tripoli, and is bounded on all other sides by the Great Sandy Desert: it comprehends a superficial extent of about 136,400 square miles, but its population is thought not to exceed 180,000 souls, and is of a very mixed character, being composed partly of the natives of the surrounding desert, and partly of merchants from all the neighbouring countries. The Fezzaneers are Mahometans: they are governed by a king, who assumes at present the title of Bey, and whose power is despotic and hereditary. Mourzouk, the capital of Fezzan, is situated in the South Western part of the kingdom, and is the ordinary residence of the sultan or Bey; it is surrounded by strong walls, but is a place of very little consequence, its population not exceeding 2,000 souls:

59. Fezzan is an exceedingly desert and arid country, and contains no rivers of the least consequence. Its N. part is traversed by the lofty range of mountains called the Soudah M^s. or Black Harutsh, which are, as it were, the Eastern termination of M^t. Atlas: they throw off a spur towards the S. named the White Harutsh and the Eyre M^s. Fezzan was overrun at a very early period by the Saracens, who established in it the Mahometan

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which has ever since continued to prevail, though many traces of gross animism are still to be met with. About one half of the inhabitants are negroes, the limits of the black population extending as far Northward as the town of Sebha. Fezzan derives all its importance from its situation rendering it the great dépôt for most of the commerce which is carried on between the Northern, Eastern, and Central parts of Africa; hence merchants from the principal Barbary States, as well as from Soudan, Egypt, and even from Arabia, are found dwelling within its limits, and caravans of traders from several of these countries occasionally pass through it. The king is altogether uncontroled in the exercise of his authority, though his dominions have been tributary to Tripoli since the middle of the 16th century, the Bashaw of the latter country annually sending an embassy to receive the stipulated sum either in gold, slaves, or other articles of value. The other chief towns of Fezzan besides Mourzouk are Sockna, Sebha, Zuela and Germa.

70°

THE CAPE VERDE, CANARY, MADEIRA, AND WESTERN ISLANDS.

400. THE CAPE VERDE ISLANDS, the most Southern of those which lie off the N.W. coast of Africa in the Atlantic Ocean, are about 300 miles distant from the promontory whence they derive their name. The principal of them are ten in number, viz. St. Antonio, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, St. Nicholas, St. Philip, and Brava or St. John, on the South: the nearest of them to the mainland in Buenavista, and the most distant St. Antonio. They unitedly contain a superficial extent of about 1,800 square miles, and 100,000 inhabitants. They were first discovered in the middle of the 15th. century by a Genoese in the service of the king of Portugal, and were then inhabited by negroes: the Portuguese, however, have at different times sent out a number of settlers, and have ever since kept possession of them, their governor residing at Porto Praya in the island of Santiago.

61. THE CANARY OR FORTUNATE ISLANDS lie off the South Western extremity of Morocco; Forteventura, the nearest of them, being only 45 miles distant from the mainland. There are only seven principal islands, namely, Forteventura, Lancerota, Canary, Teneriffe, Gomera, Palma, and Ferro: of these, Canary is remarkable as having given name to the whole group, Teneriffe on account of its very lofty peak, and Ferro as the place adopted by the old geographers for a First Meridian. The Canary Is. contain about 2,900 square miles, and 180,000 inhabitants; they are under the dominion of the Spaniards, whose viceroy resides at Santa Cruz in Teneriffe, the most important harbour of the whole group. The Canary Islands were completely lost sight of in Europe during the dark ages, till the middle of the 14th century, when the Spanish navigators brought a confused account of their existence; they were not, however, fully explored till fifty years afterwards, when a Norman gentleman conquered most of them, and received the sovereignty of them from Henry 3d., king of Castile, on condition of perpetual homage to the crown of Castile. The aboriginal natives of the Canaries were called Guanches, and defended every mile of their islands against the invasion of the Spaniards with great intrepidity, till being overpowered by superior numbers and discipline, they were at last either exterminated or forced to submit to the ceremony of baptism. The few of them which remained from the massacres which had been committed amongst them, were not, however, able to be kept in that degree of civilization required by their conquerors; the Spanish colonists therefore applied subsequently to the mother country for the introduction of the Inquisition, which was immediately granted, and this horrible engine of state policy so com-

viz. St. Maria, St. Michael, Terceira, Graciosa, St. George, Flores, and Corvo : of these the most important one is Terceira of which is Angra, where the Portuguese governor resides. were unknown to the Ancients, and though some description given by the Arabian geographers of the middle ages, they were by Europeans till about the middle of the 15th century, when discovered by a Flemish merchant who was driven by stress of weather to their shores ; this led to their being explored by the Portuguese who ever since kept possession of them.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA.

1. America, or The New World, may be considered as an immense island, stretching nearly across the Western Hemisphere, in the same way that the three continents of the Eastern Hemisphere, being joined together and surrounded by the ocean, likewise form an enormous island. It is washed on the E. by the Atlantic Ocean, on the S. by the Antarctic Ocean, on the W. by the Pacific Ocean, and on the N. by the Arctic Ocean.

Having heard of the discoveries of Columbus, imbibed the desire of distinguishing himself by a similar pursuit, and first visited the New World in 1499. Two years prior to this, Sebastian Cabot, the son of a Venetian Pilot, but an Englishman by birth, was despatched from Bristol, his native place, by king Henry 7th, and discovered the islands of Newfoundland and St. John, and sailed down the coast of the mainland as far as Florida.

3. Columbus having had considerable nautical experience, felt satisfied not only that there must be lands still farther to the Westward than those already explored, but that a shorter passage to the East Indies, at that time the great object of Portuguese navigation, might be found in steering in that direction than round the continent of Africa. When he had settled his plan for extending the boundaries of the knowledge of the Earth, he laid his scheme before the Senate of Genoa, and, making his own country, for which he bore a filial and sincere affection, the first tender of his services, offered to sail under the banners of that republic, in quest of new regions. Genoa rejected his offer; and Portugal, to whom he next applied, treated him with so much duplicity, that he went himself to Spain, whilst at the same time he sent his brother Bartholomew into England, to make the like proposals to both courts. By both his schemes were at first slighted, till by the interposition of some zealous friends at the court of Spain, a change was effected in his favour, and a treaty signed with him, by which Ferdinand and Isabella, the sovereigns of Spain, appointed him their High Admiral in all the seas he should discover, and their viceroy in all the islands and continents.

4. Columbus accordingly set sail from Palos, a small sea-port town of Seville in Andalusia, his fleet consisting of only three small vessels, having on board but ninety men; and after surmounting the difficulties of a perilous and mutinous voyage, he discovered, on the 33d day from his departure, one of the Bahama islands, which he subsequently named San Salvador. He was the first European who set foot in the New World which he had discovered, and he took solemn possession of it for the crown of Castile and Leon, with all the formalities observed in the appropriation of new discoveries. From San Salvador Columbus proceeded in his investigations; he saw several islands, and touched on three of the largest: he likewise visited Cuba and Hispaniola. Wherever he went he enquired for gold, and having obtained a certain quantity of the precious metal, and made other arrangements, he took his departure homewards, accompanied by some of the natives, and arrived in the port of Palos, about seven months and a half from the time when he set out thence. Ferdinand and Isabella conferred upon him the highest honours which gratitude or admiration could suggest: all his stipulated privileges were confirmed, his family was ennobled, and another armament was immediately fitted out for him. This consisted of 17 ships, and about 1,500 persons, of whom a large number were men of distinction, destined to settle in the newly discovered countries.

5. Columbus sailed from Cadiz on his second voyage to the New World, in the year 1493. He first reached the Caribbee Islands, and subsequently Hispaniola, where he built a small town, which he named Isabella, in honour of his royal patroness: he then proceeded in quest of new discoveries, but during a tedious voyage of five months, in which he endured every

several distinct ridges, whose total breadth varies from 30 to 100 miles: they run nearly parallel with the sea-shore, at the distance of from 50 to 400 miles from it, and divide the rivers and streams of water which flow into the Atlantic on the East, from those which flow into the lakes and the R. Mississippi on the West. These mountains are not confusedly broken, but stretch along in uniform ranges, for the most part not half a mile high. The several ridges are known by different names, as The Blue Ridge, North Mountain, Jackson's Mountain, Laurel Mountain, Cumberland Mountain, &c.

14. The elevations of some of the principal mountains, volcanoes, and towns of America, above the level of the sea, will be found in the following table.

SYNOPTICAL TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS OF AMERICA.

	Feet.		Feet.
Alephaz M ⁿ , United States	6,234	Killington Peak, United States	3,924
Amba M ⁿ , Colombia	17,256	Mandlos M ⁿ , Chili	20,000
Amba M ⁿ , Colombia	21,134	Mansfield M ⁿ , United States	4,279
Amba M ⁿ , Colombia	19,135	Mexico, City of, Mexico	7,494
Amba M ⁿ , United States	3,320	Micupampa, T ⁿ . of, Peru	11,670
Baldwin M ⁿ , Chili	20,000	Misery, M ⁿ , St. Christopher	3,711
Baldwin M ⁿ , Chili	7,456	Moose Hillock, United States	4,636
Cajamarca M ⁿ , Colombia	19,410	Morne Garou M ⁿ , St. Vincents	5,000
Cajamarca M ⁿ , United States	4,168	Pelee M ⁿ , Martinique	5,100
Chimborazo M ⁿ , Colombia	21,134	Pichinca M ⁿ , Colombia	15,939
Coopaxi M ⁿ , Colombia	18,875	Popocatepetl M ⁿ , Mexico	17,268
Corazon, El, Colombia	15,795	Quito, T ⁿ . of, Colombia	9,536
Cuanarama M ⁿ , Guyana	6,420	Riobamba, T ⁿ . of, Colombia	10,800
Descabezado M ⁿ , La Plata	18,000	Saddle M ⁿ , United States	4,000
Duida M ⁿ , Guyana	8,467	Sangai M ⁿ , Colombia	17,138
Durango, T ⁿ . of, Mexico	6,848	Snæfjell, Iceland	6,860
Elias, M ⁿ , St., N.W. America	12,672	Stony or Rocky M ⁿ , N. America (highest pt.)	6,150
Fairweather, M ⁿ , N. W. America	14,900	Sulphur Volcano, Guadeloupe	5,041
Fraide, Peak of, Mexico	15,129	Tunguragua M ⁿ , Colombia	15,814
Guanajuato, T ⁿ . of, Mexico	6,833	Wachusett M ⁿ , United States	2,020
Hecla, M ⁿ , Iceland	4,980	White M ⁿ , United States	6,234
Ilinissa M ⁿ , Colombia	17,238		
Kearsarge M ⁿ , United States	2,461		

ated with gentleness, for it was his defence of the property and lives of these harmless savages that had brought down upon his head such bitter hatred. The Spaniards, in order to effect the subjugation of the country, tried on a most barbarous system of extermination: and not content with the ordinary and most bloody destruction of war, which their superiority in arms and tactics gave them over such rude people, they caused a great number of the Indians to be torn to pieces by large hounds and a species of mastiffs or bull-dogs. They likewise occasioned the death of vast numbers of these poor wretches in the mines, in the pearl-fisheries, and under the weight of burdens that could only be transported on men's shoulders, because throughout the whole extent of the Eastern coast of the New World, no beast of burden or of draught was found. In short, they exercised innumerable cruelties on the *caciques* or chiefs, whom they suspected of having concealed any silver or gold: no discipline whatever was observed in their small parties, composed mostly of thieves, and commanded by men who merited capital punishment for their crimes, and had mostly been taken from the dregs of the people. It is an indisputable fact, that both Almagro and Pizarro could neither read nor write. These two adventurers were at the head of 170 foot-soldiers, a number of bull-dogs, and a monk named La Valle Viridi, whom Almagro afterwards caused to be beaten to death with the butt-end of muskets, in the island of Puna. Such was the army that marched against the Peruvians: as to that which went to the attack of the Mexicans, under the conduct of Cortez, it consisted of fifteen cavaliers, and 500 infantry at the utmost. The horrors committed by these 700 murderers are indescribable; and the hundreds of thousands of ignorant savages, whom they butchered for the sake of plunder, would exceed the bounds of all credibility, if it did not stand upon the pages of history recorded by their own countrymen. By such means they succeeded in subduing more than one-third of the New World under their dominion, but a retribution has at last overtaken them: at this moment they do not possess a single foot of land in the whole continent of America, whilst their own territory in Europe, enervated by the vast wealth which it so easily drew from its prolific colonies, has become one of the most unhappy and degraded countries in all Christendom.

9. PRINCIPAL MOUNTAINS OF AMERICA. There is one great range of mountains, which extends through the whole Western part of America, from the shores of the Arctic Ocean to the Southern extremity of the continent. It is called the Rocky or Stony Mountains in North America, and is known by the name of the Andes, or The Cordillera (i. e. *Range*) of the Andes, in South America. The Alleghany, Allegany, or Apalachian mountains, as they are sometimes called, from a tribe of Indians who live in their neighbourhood, is the name applied to an extensive range of hills, stretching in a North Easterly direction through the United States in the Eastern part of North America, nearly from the mouth of the R. St. Lawrence to that of the Mississippi. They are about 1,200 miles in length, and are composed of

several distinct ridges, whose total breadth varies from 30 to 100 miles: they run nearly parallel with the sea-shore, at the distance of from 50 to 400 miles from it, and divide the rivers and streams of water which flow into the Atlantic on the East, from those which flow into the lakes and the R. Mississippi on the West. These mountains are not confusedly broken, but stretch along in uniform ranges, for the most part not half a mile high. The several ridges are known by different names, as The Blue Ridge, North Mountain, Jackson's Mountain, Laurel Mountain, Cumberland Mountain, &c.

10. The elevations of some of the principal mountains, volcanoes, and towns of America, above the level of the sea, will be found in the following table:

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	Feet.		Feet.
Alleghany M ^s ., United States (highest p ^t .) -	6,234	Killington Peak, United States - - -	3,924
Altair M ⁿ ., Colombia -	17,256	Mansios M ⁿ ., Chili -	20,000
Andes M ^s ., Colombia, (highest p ^t .) - -	21,134	Mansfield M ⁿ ., United States - - -	4,279
Antisana M ⁿ ., Colombia -	19,135	Mexico, City of, Mexico -	7,494
Ascutney M ⁿ ., United States - - -	3,320	Micupampa, T ⁿ . of, Peru	11,670
Blanquillo M ⁿ ., Chili -	20,000	Misery, M ^t ., St. Christophers - - -	3,711
Blue M ^s ., Jamaica (highest p ^t .) - -	7,486	Moose Hillock, United States - - -	4,636
Cajambe Ourcou M ⁿ ., Colombia - - -	19,410	Morne Garou M ⁿ ., St. Vincents - - -	5,000
Camel's Rump, United States - - -	4,188	Pelee M ⁿ ., Martinique -	5,100
Chimborazo M ⁿ ., Colombia	21,134	Pichinca M., Colombia -	15,939
Cotopaxi M ⁿ ., Colombia -	18,875	Popocatepetl M ⁿ ., Mexico - - -	17,268
Corazon, El, Colombia -	15,795	Quito, T ⁿ . of, Colombia -	9,536
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Descabezado M ⁿ ., La Plata	18,000	Saddle M ⁿ ., United States	4,000
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Durango, T ⁿ . of, Mexico	6,848	Snæfiel, Iceland - -	6,860
Elias, M ^t . St., N.W. America - - -	12,672	Stony or Rocky M ⁿ s., N. America (highest p ^t .) -	6,150
Fairweather, M ^t ., N. W. America - - -	14,900	Sulphur Volcano, Guadeloupe - - -	5,041
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Ilinissa M ⁿ ., Colombia	17,238		
Kearsarge M ⁿ ., United States - - -	2,461		

11. STATES OF AMERICA. The Isthmus of Darien, or Panama as it is also called, is not more than 25 miles broad in its narrowest part; it divides America into two nearly equal portions, that which lies to the N. of it being commonly called North America, and that to the S. of South America. The Northern part of America, extending between the two great oceans and including more than one fifth part of the whole continent, belongs to the British, with the exception of a comparatively small portion at the Western extremity opposite to Asia, which belongs to the Russians and is generally denominated Russian America. British America contains several subdivisions, as Upper and Lower Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, New Britain, &c.: its North Eastern part touches upon Greenland, which is the farthest part of the continent in this direction, and off which is the island of Iceland.

12. The United States lie immediately South of British America, and below them again is Mexico; both of which countries likewise occupy the whole breadth of the continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. Farther Southward are, the little territory of Balize, belonging to the British; and the republic of Guatemala, which occupies the narrowest part of the continent and is the Southernmost state in North America. To the E. of Mexico and Guatemala, in the North Atlantic Ocean, there is a multitude of islands, some of which are very considerable in size but others are of little consequence: all these islands are collectively distinguished by the appellation of The West Indies or West India Islands, and belong mostly to European Powers.

13. The Northernmost State in South America is Colombia, which confines towards the North West with Guatemala: to the East of it lies Guyana, parcelled out into three divisions, belonging to the English, Dutch, and French. The whole Eastern part of South America forms one large empire, called the Empire of Brazil, and comprehends very nearly one half of the peninsula. To the W. of it, and to the S. of Colombia, are Peru and Upper Peru; the former of these is farther Northward and extends along the coast of the Pacific Ocean, the latter (*sometimes styled Bolivia*) is more inland between

it and Brazil.—The little dictatorship of Paraguay lies between the two rivers Paraguay and Parana, to the S. and W. of Brazil, and to the S. E. of Upper Peru: towards the S. it touches upon La Plata or the Argentine Republic, which extends from the Cordillera of the Andes to the South Atlantic Ocean.

14. **Chili** is a long narrow tract of country, lying along the shores of the South Pacific Ocean, and bounded on the E. by the Andes, which divide it from La Plata. The Southern extremity of the continent is called Patagonia, and is separated from an island, or several islands, known by the name of Terra del Fuego, by the Strait of Magellan. To the Eastward of Patagonia are the Falkland Islands, and farther out in the Atlantic lie Georgia and the Sandwich Land. New South Shetland is the name given to an extensive archipelago lying about 400 miles below Cape Horn, which is the Southern extremity of Terra del Fuego: it consists of several islands, called King George's I., Palmer's Land, Powell's Group, &c. Still farther South are two small islands known by the names of Peter's I. and Alexander's I.; these are nearer to the South Pole than any other lands hitherto discovered, but are, notwithstanding, ten degrees nearer the Equator than Spitzbergen in the Northern Hemisphere.

15. The superficial extent, and the probable population of each country in America, will be seen in the following table:

STATISTICAL TABLE OF AMERICA.

					Square Miles.	Souls.
NORTH AMERICA. 7,462,700 square miles; 20,360,000 souls.	British America	-	-	-	2,776,600	2,500,000
	Greenland	-	-	-	663,900	20,000
	Iceland	-	-	-	15,800	50,000
	Russian America	-	-	-	545,700	40,000
	Lake Superior	-	-	27,900	69,300	—
	Lake Michigan	-	-	11,800		
	Lake Huron	-	-	10,700		
	Lake Manatoulin	-	-	5,000		
	Lake Erie	-	-	8,400		
	Lake Ontario	-	-	5,500		
	United States	-	-	-	1,603,900	12,500,000
	Mexico	-	-	-	1,362,900	7,550,000
	Guatemala or Central America	-	-	-	124,600	1,500,000
	Balleze	-	-	-	6,400	20,000
	West India Islands	-	-	-	73,600	2,500,000

	Square Miles.	Souls.
Colombia - - - - -	808,800	3,350,000
Guyana - - - - -	162,400	290,000
Brazil - - - - -	2,659,700	4,000,000
Peru - - - - -	343,200	1,750,000
Upper Peru or Bolivia - - - - -	369,700	800,000
Paraguay - - - - -	75,300	500,000
La Plata or the Argentine Republic	829,700	1,800,000
Chili - - - - -	129,200	1,200,000
Patagonia - - - - -	257,700	500,000
Falkland Islands - - - - - 4,300	14,200	20,000
Galapagos Islands - - - - - 3,000		
Georgia, Sandwich Land, } 6,900		
New South Shetland, &c. - }		
Total in America - - -	12,892,600	40,890,000

the great Political convulsion which took place in America a few years ago, and by which the Spaniards have completely lost every mile of territory they once possessed in this continent, their extensive possessions were divided into six parts. These were, 1. The Government of The Floridas : 2. The Viceroyalty of New Spain or Mexico : 3. The Viceroyalty of New Granada, including the kingdom of Terra Firma, the kingdom of New Granada, and the kingdom of Quito : 4. The Viceroyalty of Peru : 5. The Captainship and Presidency of Buenos-Ayres or of the Rio de la Plata : 6. The Captainship and Presidency of Chili.

PRINCIPAL RIVERS OF AMERICA. In the northern part of N. America is a large river, which rises on the Eastern side of the Rocky Mountains, and after a long and various course of 2,100 miles, during which it passes through the Great Slave Lake, enters the Arctic Ocean. The upper part of its course is called the Unjigah or Mackenzie R., till it is joined by the waters of its tributary the Athabasca, when the united stream is distinguished by the name of the Slave R., and enters the Great Slave Lake ; below this lake it is called Mackenzie's R. The principal rivers which enter Hudson's Bay are the Rupert, the Winnipeg, and the Saskatchewan, both of which rise on the Western side of the Rocky Mountains. The former is called Churchill R. in the lower part of its course, and after traversing several small lakes, enters Hudson's Bay at Fort Churchill : the Saskatchewan runs through the Northern part of L. Winnipeg, and enters Hudson's Bay at York Ft., where it is called Portage R., being known by several names in the lower part of its course.

17. The R. St. Lawrence rises nearly in the centre of N. America, and flows with a circuitous course of 2,030 miles, through L. Superior, L. Huron, L. St. Clair, L. Erie, and L. Ontario, into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, which is an estuary of the Atlantic Ocean, between Labrador, New Brunswick, and the Island of Newfoundland. The R. Utawas, or Ottawa, is a tributary of the St. Lawrence, which it enters on its Northern bank a little above the town of Montreal, and hence it is sometimes called the Montreal R.

18. The R. St. Lawrence is known by different names in different parts of its course. At its source it is called the R. St. Louis: between L. Superior and L. Huron it is named St. Mary's R., or the Narrows from the fall which it makes there; between L. Huron and L. Erie it receives the name of R. St. Clair and Detroit; between L. Erie and L. Ontario it is called the Niagara, and here are the famous Falls of Niagara: between L. Ontario and the Atlantic it is called the St. Lawrence, though the name of Iroquois or Cateraqui is sometimes applied to that part of it, which lies between the last mentioned lake and the town of Montreal. The Cataract of Niagara is esteemed the grandest object of the kind in the world. At the distance of about two miles from it the river is three miles wide, and begins to descend with a rapid and powerful course: at the falls the bed of the river becomes suddenly contracted to three quarters of a mile, but shortly afterwards expands to the width of about a mile and a half, its depth there exceeding 300 feet. The precipice over which the cataract descends, is formed by the brow of a vast bed of limestone, the perpendicular descent being 151 feet. The cataract is divided into two parts by Goat or Iris Island, which occupies about one-fifth of the whole breadth; the principal channel is on the Western side, and is called the Horse-shoe fall from its shape. The noise of these falls is frequently heard at York, on the Northern shore of L. Ontario, which is about 50 miles distant; the cloud of vapour thrown up is seen 70 miles off, and serves as a medium for forming, by the sun's rays, the most beautiful rainbows. The total descent of the falls within a distance of ten miles is about 300 feet.

19. The principal rivers in the Eastern part of the United States are, the Hudson R., which rises on the Western side of L. Champlain, and flows with a Southern course into the Atlantic, opposite New York: the Delaware, Susquehanna, and Potomack, running to the S. W. of it, the first of which flows into Delaware Bay, and the two last into Chesapeake Bay: the James R., Roanoke R., Savannah, and Altamaha, which all run farther to the Southward, and enter the Atlantic Ocean.

20. The R. Mississippi divides the United States into two nearly equal parts; it rises near the Western extremity of L. Superior, and flows with a Southerly course of 2,220 miles into the Gulf of Mexico. Upon its right

bank it receives the waters of the R. Missouri, which rises in the Rocky M^s, and is of itself longer than the whole course of the Mississippi; the united stream, however, retains the latter appellation. The length of the Mississippi, if reckoned from the Missouri source, is greater than that of any other river in the world, being about 3,610 miles, or one sixth part of the circumference of the earth. The Mississippi has many important tributaries. On its Eastern bank it receives the waters of the Illinois, Wabash, Ohio, Cumberland, and Tennessee; upon its Western bank those of the La Platte, Kansas, Arkansas, and the Red River.

21. The principal rivers of Mexico are, the Rio del Norte, which flows down from the Eastern side of the Rocky Mountains into the Gulf of Mexico; and the R. Colorado, which rises on the Western side of the same range and runs into the Gulf of California. To the N. of this last river is the Columbia, sometimes called the Oregon, which rises on the Western side of the Rocky Mountains, at no great distance from the source of the Saskatchewan, and flows with a South Easterly course into the Pacific Ocean.

22. All the great rivers of South America run into the Western Ocean. Amongst the chief of them may be mentioned the Magdalena, which flows into the Caribbean Sea; the Orinoco, which enters the Atlantic near the Island of Trinidad; and the Amazon, which runs into the same ocean, close under the Equinoctial Line. The Amazon, Marañon, or Orellana, as it is variously called, is 3,130 miles long, being the second greatest river in America, and the third in the whole world: it receives the waters of many considerable tributaries; amongst others, those of the Tunguragua, Putumayo, Japura, and Negro, on its Northern bank; and those of the Ucayale, Jutay, Puros, Madeira, Tapajos, and Xingu, on its Southern bank.

23. To the Eastward of the Amazon is the R. Para, which runs through the empire of Brazil from South to North; it is composed of several rivers, all bearing different names, the chief of which are the Tocantins and the Araguay. The Rio de la Plata is in the Southern part

of the peninsula, and is, properly speaking, only the continuation of the R. Paraguay; its waters are increased by those of several tributaries, as the Pilcomayo and Vermejo on its right bank, and the Parana and Uruguay on its left bank. It is 1,830 miles long from the source of the Paraguay to Buenos Ayres.

24. The following table will convey some idea of the actual and comparative lengths of these rivers:

SYNOPTICAL TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL RIVERS OF AMERICA.

	Miles.		Miles.
Alabama or Coosa - - -	465	Missinnippy or Churchill	1,100
Altamaha - - - - -	340	Mississippi (proper) -	2,220
Amazon (from the Paro source) - - - - -	3,130	Mississippi (from the Missouri source) - - -	3,610
Arkansaw - - - - -	1,560	Missouri - - - - -	2,360
Berbice - - - - -	140	Negro - - - - -	1,230
Bravo del Norte - - -	1,440	Ohio - - - - -	925
Colorado (Mexico) - -	740	Orinoco - - - - -	1,490
Colorado (La Plata) -	920	Para or Tocantins - -	1,190
Columbia - - - - -	1,430	Parana - - - - -	1,400
Connecticut - - - - -	335	Parnaiba - - - - -	680
Cumberland - - - - -	550	Paros - - - - -	890
Delaware - - - - -	320	Pilcomayo - - - - -	1,100
Demerary - - - - -	190	Potomack - - - - -	305
Essequibo - - - - -	500	Putumayo - - - - -	830
Francisco, St. - - - -	1,280	Red - - - - -	1,660
Hudson - - - - -	300	Roanoke - - - - -	210
James - - - - -	335	Saskatchewan - - -	1,600
Illinois - - - - -	380	Savannah - - - - -	300
John, St. (New Brunswick) - - - - -	320	Surinam - - - - -	300
Jutay - - - - -	890	Susquehanna - - - -	435
Kansas - - - - -	700	Tapajos - - - - -	1,020
La Plata or Paraguay -	1,830	Tennessee - - - - -	690
La Platte - - - - -	720	Tunguragua - - - - -	890
Lawrence, St. - - - -	2,030	Vermejo - - - - -	850
Mackenzie or Unjigah -	2,100	Uruguay - - - - -	950
Madeira - - - - -	1,760	Utawas - - - - -	530
Magdalena - - - - -	720	Wabash - - - - -	380
Mendoza or Colorado -	920	Xingu - - - - -	1,260

25. PRINCIPAL GULFS AND SEAS OF AMERICA. Baffin's Bay is in the Northern extremity of the continent, between Greenland on the East and North, and the shores of British America on the West: it is connected by Davis Strait with the N. Atlantic Ocean, and forms the communication between it and the Arctic Sea. Hudson's Bay is

an extensive bay in the midst of the British possessions, and communicating with the N. Atlantic through Hudson's Strait ; it contains several large bays, the chief of which is James's Bay. The Gulf of St. Lawrence lies at the mouth of the R. St. Lawrence, between the shores of Lower Canada, New Brunswick, Labrador, and the I. of Newfoundland : it is connected with the Atlantic by the Strait of Bellisle and the channels of Cape Breton Island.

26. The Gulf of Mexico is in the central part of the continent, being bounded by the United States on the East and North, and by Mexico and the I. of Cuba on the West and South ; it communicates with the N. Atlantic Ocean on the East by means of the Gulf Stream, which rushes out between the I. of Cuba and the United States, and with the Caribbean Sea on the South by a narrow strait separating Cuba from Mexico. The Caribbean Sea is bounded on the E. by the West India Islands, on the S. by Colombia, on the W. by Guatemala and Mexico, and on the N. it is connected with the Gulf of Mexico by means of the narrow strait just described : it contains several bays, the principal of which are the Gulf of Honduras, the Gulf of Darien, and the Gulf of Maracaybo, and it communicates on the East with the N. Atlantic Ocean by means of the several channels through the West India Islands.

27. The Bay of Panama is an inlet of the N. Pacific Ocean on the Western coast of the Continent, below the Isthmus of the same name, and only a few degrees to the N. of the Equinoctial line. To the N. of it is the long narrow Gulf of California, which is an arm of the same ocean running up between the peninsula of California and the mainland of Mexico. The principal inland seas of N. America are L. Superior, L. Michigan, L. Huron, and L. Erie : in S. America are those of Maracaybo and Titicaca.

28. PRINCIPAL STRAITS OF AMERICA. The Strait which connects Baffin's Bay with the N. Atlantic Ocean is called Davis' Strait, and runs up between Greenland on the E. and British America on the West. To the S. W. of it is Hudson's Strait which joins the N. Atlantic

with Hudson's Bay, and is bounded on the N. and S. by the British Possessions. The Strait of Bellisle separates the I. of Newfoundland from the mainland of America. The Strait of Magellan is a long, narrow, and intricate passage between the Southern extremity of the continent and the island (or group of islands) called Terra del Fuego. Bhering's Strait lies between C. Prince of Wales, the Westernmost point of America, and East Cape the Eastern extremity of Asiatic Russia: it separates the two continents of America and Asia, and connects the Frozen Ocean with the Pacific.

29. THE PRINCIPAL PROMONTORIES OF AMERICA ARE, C. Farewell, the Southern extremity of Greenland; C. Charles, the South Easternmost point of Labrador; C. Tancha or Florida, the Southern extremity of the United States; C. S. Roque, at the Easternmost part of South America; C. Horn, off Terra del Fuego, at the Southern extremity of the continent; C. Patna and C. Blanco, the Westernmost points of South America; C. S. Lucas, the termination of the long peninsula of California; and C. Prince of Wales, the Westernmost point of America, between which and East Cape in Asia is Bhering's Strait, which in its narrowest part is only 40 miles across.

CHAPTER XXIX.

BRITISH AMERICA.

1. BRITISH AMERICA is bounded on the N. by the Polar Sea, on the E. by Greenland and the Atlantic Ocean, on the S. by the United States, and on the W. by the Pacific Ocean and Russian America: it contains about 2,776,600 square miles, or more than all Europe, and its population is estimated at 2,500,000 souls. It may be divided into eight great provinces or governments, viz. Upper Canada, Lower Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward's or St. John's I., the I. of Newfoundland, New Britain, and the North West Territory. All these provinces are under the management of a Governor General, who appoints lieutenant-governors over them; he resides at Quebec, the metropolis of the whole country, which is situated in

Lower Canada on the Northern bank of the R. St. Lawrence.

2. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. The Western part of British America is traversed by the Rocky or Stony Mountains, which terminate on the shores of the Arctic Sea near the mouth of Mackenzie's River. To the W. of them, upon the coast of the Atlantic, there are several elevated peaks, as Mt. St. Elias and Mt. Fairweather, the latter of which is nearly 15,000 feet above the level of the sea. Amongst the principal rivers in British America we may mention the Coppermine R. and the Unjigah or Peace R. (called in the lower part of its course Mackenzie's R.), both of which run into the Frozen Ocean; the Columbia or Oregon, the Caledonia, and Tacoutche-Tesse, which discharge themselves into the Atlantic Ocean; the Missinnippi, Saskatchewan, Severn, Albany, and Abbitibbe, which flow into the Western side of Hudson's Bay; Rupert's R., E. Main or Slude R., and Whale R., which flow into its E. side; the Caniapuscau, which empties itself into Hudson's Strait; and the famous R. St. Lawrence, which discharges its waters into the G. of St. Lawrence opposite the I. of Anticosti.

3. British America contains several extensive and valuable lakes. The chief of these are the G^t. Bear L., Slave L., Athapescow L., Winnipeg L., Winipigoos L., Abbitibbe L., and Mistissinny Lake. Besides these there are the more important ones which partly form the line of demarcation between British America and the United States: these are the L. of the Woods, L. Superior, L. Michigan, L. Huron, L. Manatoulin, L. St. Clair, L. Erie, and L. Ontario.

4. UPPER and LOWER CANADA, so called with respect to their situation along the R. St. Lawrence and the lakes which it traverses, composed but one province till the latter end of the last century, when it was divided into two parts; the boundary between them runs from L. St. Francis, in the R. St. Lawrence, up the R. Uta-~~was~~ to L. Timmiskamain, and thence by a line due North to Hudson's Bay. All the territories to the East of this line belong to the jurisdiction of the Governor

General of Canada, whilst those to the West are under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant Governor of Upper Canada.

5. Canada was first discovered by Sebastian Cabot and his father in 1497, and was taken possession of towards the middle of the 16th century by Sir Humphrey Gilbert in the name of the King of England. Prior to this it had been visited by several adventurers, amongst whom was Jacques Cartier, a Frenchman, who at last penetrated as far up the St. Lawrence as Montreal, which was then only an Indian village. It was not, however, till the year 1608 that the French established a colony in the country, after which it was gradually and more fully explored: it was taken from them by the English in 1629, but restored to them two years afterwards by the treaty of St. Germain en Laye. As soon as Canada was placed immediately under the direction of the king of France (for hitherto it had been committed to the government of avaricious trading companies), it began to make very great advances in opulence and prosperity; but in consequence of its governors carrying on destructive wars against the Indians, the colonists were continually exposed to the incursions of their savage enemies, whose track was always marked with devastation and blood. At last, in the year 1759, Canada once more fell into the hands of the English, to whom it was finally secured by the treaty of Versailles in 1763.

6. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. Some years after Canada had finally fallen into the hands of the British, its government was completely new modelled upon the principles of our own Constitution. The legislative power was conferred upon a Council and a House of Assembly; the former consists of 22 members appointed by the king of Great Britain, 15 of whom are chosen for Lower Canada, and seven for Upper Canada; the House of Assembly is composed of 52 members elected for the districts and towns, by the proprietors of landed property and the possessors of dwelling houses. The Governor General has the power of proroguing or dissolving the Assembly, as well as of putting a veto on all its acts, and these, though sanctioned by him, may be abrogated by the king in council, at any period within two years after their arrival in England. Most of the inhabitants profess the Roman Catholic religion, but no disqualification exists on account of religious opinions, both Protestants and Roman Catholics being admitted to equal privileges.

7. Upper Canada is divided into eight districts, viz. Eastern, Johnstown, Midland, Newcastle, Horne, Niagara, London, and Western; these again are subdivided into 23 counties. Its capital is York, formerly called Toronto, situated on the Northern shore of L. Ontario and not far from its Western

community: it is a flourishing little place, being the residence of the Lieutenant-governor, and contains about 4,000 inhabitants. The other chief towns are Kingston, near the junction of the R. St. Lawrence and L. Ontario; Newark, Queenstown, Johnstown, and Chippeway.—Lower Canada is divided into four districts, viz. Montreal, Trois Rivières, Quebec, and Gaspé: and these are subdivided into 21 counties.

8. Quebec, the capital of Lower Canada, is situated on the Northern banks of the R. St. Lawrence, where it is joined by its little tributary the St. Charles: it is esteemed the strongest town in America, and ranks as a fortress of the first consequence. It is the seat of government, and the principal station of the troops for the defence of the country. The population of Quebec amounts to 20,000 souls, of whom about two-thirds are of French extraction, and profess the Roman Catholic religion.

9. The peculiar irregularity of the ground, upon which Quebec is built, occasions great unevenness in the streets, many of which are exceedingly narrow, though they are all well-paved: the houses are mostly built of stone, of very unequal height, with great sloping roofs. The Castle of St. Louis, the governor's residence, is a handsome stone building of three stories, situated on the summit of a rock upwards of 200 feet high: some of the other public buildings are spacious and elegant, but they do not in general add much to the appearance of the city. The harbour of Quebec is very beautiful, safe, and spacious, being capable of containing 100 sail of the line; the depth of water in it is about 28 fathoms, and the ordinary rise of the tide about 18 feet: the R. St. Lawrence, which is about 12 miles wide above the town, here contracts itself suddenly to the width of one mile. Quebec was founded in 1608 by the French settlers, who, before that period, had lived much dispersed over the country: it was taken by the English in 1629, but restored shortly afterwards. It was fortified about the close of the 17th century, and from that period made gradual and rapid advances. In the year 1759 it was taken a second time by the English, under the command of the brave General Wolfe who fell in the engagement; and it was ceded to us four years afterwards with the rest of Canada.

10. Montreal, the second town in rank in Lower Canada, is situated on the Eastern shore of an island of the same name in the R. St. Lawrence, about 110 miles above Quebec and 160 below L. Ontario. It is one of the greatest depôts of the North American companies who carry on the fur trade, and is also the channel through which the commerce is conducted between Canada and the United States. The streets are mostly narrow and gloomy, but many of the houses are large, handsome, and built in a modern style. The population of Montreal is equal to that of Quebec. The other great towns of Lower Canada are, Trois Rivières on the St. Lawrence, about midway between Quebec and Montreal; Sherbrooke on the R. St. François, close on the borders of the United States; and Percé near the Bay of Gaspé, opposite the I. of Anticosti, at the Eastern extremity of the province.

11. NEW BRUNSWICK is bounded on the W. by the United States and Lower Canada, on the N. by the latter

country, on the E. by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and on the S. by the Bay of Fundy and Nova Scotia: it is divided into 10 counties. Its capital is St. John's, situated at the mouth of a cognominal river, which rises near the Northern extremity of the Alleghany Mountains and empties itself into the Bay of Fundy.

12. St. John's is a very flourishing town, much the largest in the province, and is tolerably well built, but the houses are mostly of wood: it has lately been made a free port, and carries on an active commerce. The population of St. John's amounts to about 9,000 souls. The other chief towns of New Brunswick are Gage Town and Frederick Town, both on the Western banks of the R. St. John; Liverpool, on the coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence; Chatham and Newcastle, at the mouth of Miramichi R. which runs into Miramichi Bay; and Dalhousie, at the Northern extremity of the province, at the mouth of the R. Ristigouche.

13. NOVA SCOTIA is a long narrow peninsula, separated from New Brunswick on the N. by an isthmus only ten miles broad: the name was formerly extended to the province of New Brunswick, till 1784, when it was divided into two provinces. Its capital, Halifax, is situated on the Southern shores of the peninsula, and on the Western side of Chebucto Bay; it is about two miles long, and is very strongly entrenched. It is the chief station of the British navy in the Northern part of America; the harbour is open at all seasons, of bold and easy entrance, and spacious enough to contain 1,000 of the largest ships in entire safety. Halifax contains about 20,000 inhabitants.

14. Nova Scotia is subdivided into 11 counties, excluding the remarkable Island of Cape Breton, which lies off its Eastern extremity, and is separated from it by a narrow channel, called the Gut of Canso, about a mile and a half broad. Nova Scotia was called Acadia by the French, who occupied it long before they settled in Canada: James 1st. granted certain lands in it to Sir Wm. Alexander, from whom it received the name of Nova Scotia, but the possession of it was not confirmed to England till 1713. The other chief towns of Nova Scotia besides Halifax are, Truro, at the Eastern extremity of the Basin of Mines; Windsor, at the mouth of the R. Avon; and Annapolis on the shores of the Bay of Fundy, at the North Western extremity of the peninsula. The principal town in the I. of Cape Breton is called Sydney, and is situated on its North Eastern coast.

15. PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND, or St. John's Island as it was formerly called, lies to the E. of New Brunswick and to the N. of Nova Scotia, being separated from them by a strait about 20 miles broad, called the Strait of Northumberland: it is about 100 miles long, and its average breadth is about 20 miles. It was formerly in the possession of the French, who improved it so much, that they called it the granary of Canada; but it was taken from them by the English in the year 1745. It is at present divided

into three counties. Its capital, Charlotte Town, containing about 5,000 inhabitants, is advantageously situated on the Southern side of the island, and is the residence of the lieutenant governor; the other chief towns are Margaretown and Princetown.

16. THE ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND, discovered by Sebastian Cabot in the year 1497, is separated from the coast of Labrador by a narrow strait, called the Strait of Belle Isle: it locks the Gulf of St. Lawrence on the East, and is separated from the I. of Cape Breton on the S. by a channel about 60 miles broad. It is of a triangular shape, and contains 38,100 square miles, or about as many as England: it is divided into three districts, and contains but few towns or settlements of the last consequence. Its capital is St. John's.

17. The whole circuit of the island is full of bays and harbours, all so spacious and so well sheltered by the mountains, that vessels lie in them in perfect security. Newfoundland derives its chief value from the extensive cod-fishery, carried on upon the Great Bank off the Southern part of the island, in which Great Britain and the United States annually employ upwards of 8,000 sail of small craft. This island, after various disputes about its possession, was finally ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were allowed to dry their nets on its Northern shores, and to fish in the neighbouring seas; at the last peace this permission was restricted to the Northern and Western coasts of the island: the inhabitants of the United States are allowed the same privileges in fishing as before their independence. St. John's, the capital of Newfoundland, is situated on a bay of the same name at the South Eastern extremity of the island: it is a flourishing town, and contains about 12,000 inhabitants, whose chief employment is drying and packing the fish caught upon the bank, for the European markets. Placentia, the second town in Newfoundland, is situated to the S. W. of St. John's, upon the shores of a spacious bay of the same name; it contains about 4,000 inhabitants.

18. NEW BRITAIN is sometimes used as a distinguishing appellation for the whole of the British possessions in North America; but in its proper and more usual acceptance it is confined to that vast extent of territory lying round Hudson's Bay, and stretching from the shores of the Atlantic on the East, to the Rocky Mountains on the West. It comprehends Labrador, East Main, New North Wales, and New South Wales; but by far the greater part of it is parcelled out amongst a number of Indian tribes, varying in number from 500 to 5,000 souls, as the Esquimeaux, Knistineaux, Assineboines, Chipawayans, Copper Indians, and many others, whose name it is unnecessary to mention. These savage tribes are all

Pagans, who nevertheless have some notion of a Supreme Being and a future existence : they live chiefly by hunting and war, and find a ready market for the produce of the chase, at the posts and factories established by the Hudson's Bay and North West Companies in different parts of this vast country.

19. The chief of these establishments are Fort Churchill, York Ft., Severn House, Albany Ft., and Moose Ft., all on the Western shores of Hudson's Bay; Cumberland House, Hudson's Ho., Manchester Ho., and Ft. Augustus, on the R. Saskatchewan; Pierre-au-Calumet on the R. Athapescow; Ft. Chipawayan and Ft. Wedderburn on L. Athapescow; Ft. Resolution and Slave Ft. on the shores of the Great Slave Lake; and many others. Labrador is the Easternmost part of New Britain, and extends from the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Island of Newfoundland to Hudson's Straits : it is chiefly known from the laudable zeal of the Moravian missionaries, who have settled on its coasts, and received large grants of land from the British government. The northern shores of the continent have been principally explored by those navigators who have attempted to discover a North West passage to India through some of the great inlets in the Polar regions of America : in pursuance of this project several expeditions have been fitted out, which have all failed in their ultimate object, and have left but little doubt of such a voyage to India being visionary and impracticable. Such was the object of Frobisher's voyage in 1576, and of Davis in 1585; as also of Hudson in his four voyages between the years 1607-11, and of Ross, Buchan, Parry, Franklin, and Lyon, but a few years since.

20. THE NORTH WEST TERRITORY is that portion of the British Possessions in North America, which extends from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean and the limits of Russian America. It is inhabited by wild Indian tribes, who live by hunting and fishing, and barter their commodities with the traders from the Eastern part of the country, at the forts which have been established among them. There are many deep inlets and large islands on its shores in the Pacific Ocean : the principal of the latter are Queen Charlotte's I., Princess Royal's I., and Quadra-and-Vancouver's I., in which last is a famous harbour called Nootka Sound. The Gulf of Georgia lies between the last mentioned island and the mainland, and receives the waters of the rivers Tacoutche Tesse and Caledonia, which flow down into it from the Rocky Mountains. The frontier on the Pacific Ocean, between British America and the United States, is formed by the mouth of the River Columbia.

GREENLAND AND ICELAND.

21. Greenland stretches from C. Farewell on the South to the latitude of 80° North, beyond which nothing whatever is known concerning it; it is situated between Baffin's Bay and Davis' Strait on the West, and the Arctic Ocean on the East, but whether it is an island, or a peninsula forming the extremity of the continent in this direction, is unknown. The principal places on the Western coast of Greenland are, Frederick's Haab, Bals

River, New Hernhuth, Lichtenfels, Disco Bay (in which is Disco Island), and Operniwick : on the Eastern coast are Stein's Firth, Eric's Fiord, Herjolf's Noss, &c. The population of the different settlements in Greenland amounts to about 20,000 souls : they are under the control of the Danes.

22. Greenland was discovered about the year 970 by a company of Icelanders who were driven on its Eastern coast by accident, and named it *Grænland* or *Greenland* on account of its verdant appearance : on their return home, they represented the newly discovered country in such a favourable light, that many families set off thither, where they soon became a thriving colony. An active intercourse commenced between it and Denmark, which was maintained till the beginning of the 15th century, when by the gradual increase of the Arctic ice, the colony appears to have been completely imprisoned by the Frozen Ocean ; whilst on the West a range of immense mountains and plains covered with perpetual ice, precluded all access. Nothing has been heard of this ancient settlement since the year 1406, when the last of seventeen bishops was appointed over it ; the unfortunate colonists are supposed to have all perished from want, or to have been destroyed by the savage natives. This extensive tract of country, commonly called *East Greenland* or *Old Greenland*, has been also denominated *Lost Greenland*, from the circumstance of its having been enclosed by an impenetrable barrier of ice, and shut out from all intercourse with the rest of the world. The vast body of ice, however, which shut in these desolate shores, has of late years totally disappeared. A colony was likewise planted by the Danes in *West or New Greenland*, which increased to some extent, and maintained a constant intercourse with Europe till the commencement of the 16th century, when being neglected by the mother country, and engaged in continual hostilities with the native *Esquimaux*, the unfortunate settlers appear to have been entirely extirpated. A second colony, however, was despatched to *West Greenland* by the Danes, at the beginning of the last century, shortly after which the Moravians sent out certain missionaries to form settlements there : these settlers are principally found on the *South Western coast*.

23. The island of *Iceland* is only 150 miles distant from the Eastern coast of *Greenland* : it contains 15,800 square miles, being about two-thirds as large as *Ireland*, and its population amounts to 50,000 souls. It is governed as a dependency of *Denmark*, the chief authority being in the hands of a governor appointed by that country. The hot springs of *Iceland*, called *Geysers*, are very remarkable, being of all temperatures from moderate warmth to boiling heat : they are situated near *Skalholt*, on the Western side of the island, and throw columns of water into the air, varying in height according to the season and temperature from 90 to 200 feet.

24. *Iceland* is divided into four provinces, named after the cardinal points towards which they lie. The religion of the Icelanders is *Lutheranism* : their

bishop resides at Reikiavik, the capital, at the South Western part of the island: the other chief towns are Bessested and Skalholt. There are, however, no towns properly so called in the whole island, for the houses of the Iceland Company, though dignified with the name of towns, are in fact nothing but trading-posts. Iceland consists of several ranges of mountains, on the declivities of which, and in the vallies lying between them, most of the inhabitants live. The tops of these mountains are covered with perpetual snow and ice, with the exception of such as are volcanic, the most noted of which is the volcano of Mt. Hecla.

RUSSIAN AMERICA.

25. The North Western extremity of the continent of America, lying opposite to Asia and separated from it by Bhering's Strait, belongs to the Empire of Russia and is hence called Russian America: it confines on the E. with the British possessions, and is washed on the W. by the Pacific and Frozen Oceans. It contains about 545,700 square miles, and its population is estimated at 40,000 souls. Nothing whatever is known about the interior of the country, the coast being the only part that has been hitherto explored.

26. The Russians divide their American possessions into eight provinces, named after the tribes by whom the shores and archipelagos are inhabited: they have built several forts and factories, the chief of which is Sitka or New Archangel, in the island (or chain of islands) called King George the Third's Archipelago. The Westernmost part of America is formed by a long narrow peninsula named Aliaska and Ounemaak. At its termination is an extensive chain of numerous islands commonly described as the Aleootskia or Aleutian Isles, which stretches across the ocean nearly to Kamtchatka; about 40 of them have been named, the principal of which are Atto, Oonalashka, and Bhering's Island.

THE UNITED STATES.

27. The republic of the United States is bounded on the N. by British America, on the W. by the Pacific Ocean, on the S. by Mexico and the Gulf of Mexico, and on the E. by the Atlantic Ocean. It contains about 1,603,900 square miles, and its population, as estimated in 1830, amounts to 12,500,000 souls. More than half of the territory included within these limits, contains few or no settlers, and is not yet formed into states.

28. If a line were drawn from the mouth of the R. Sabine (which runs into the Gulf Mexico, and forms part of the boundary between the United States and Mexico) due North to the R. Missouri, and thence in a North Easterly direction to the Southern end of L. Michigan, the Eastern division would include nearly all the population, though less than half of the terri-

ry; the other, or Western division, is almost wholly in the possession of the Indians.

29. The United States were originally colonies of Great Britain. The first English settlement was made in the year 1607, at Jamestown in Virginia: New York was founded by the Dutch in 1614: and in 1620 the first settlement in New England was made at Plymouth, by English colonists. Hostilities were commenced between Great Britain and the colonies in 1776, and in the following year the latter made a declaration of independence, which was acknowledged by Great Britain in 1783. The present constitution, however, was not modelled till 1788: according to it, all power originates with the people, to whom it secures the great principles of freedom, entire liberty of conscience in matters of religion, liberty of the press, trial by jury, and the right of choosing and being chosen to office.

30. **GREAT NATURAL FEATURES.** The two principal ranges of mountains in the United States are, the Rocky M^s. in the W., and the Alleghany M^s. in the East: the former intersect only a small portion of the country between the heads of the rivers Saskatchewan and Arkansas. The Alleghany M^s., or Apalachian M^s. as they are likewise called, lie between the mouths of the rivers St. Lawrence and Mississippi, in lines nearly parallel with the coast of the Atlantic Ocean, and at the distance of from 50 to 400 miles from it: they are composed of several ridges, known by the names of the Blue Ridge, the White Ridge, North Mountain, Jackson's Mountain, Laurel Mountain, Cumberland M^s., &c. The Alleghany M^s. divide the rivers which flow into the Atlantic on the East, from those which run into the Lakes and the R. Mississippi on the West.

31. The United States are intersected by a great number of large rivers, which afford ample means for inland navigation. Amongst those which flow into the Atlantic may be mentioned the Potomack, Savannah, Altamaha, Susquehanna, Delaware, Hudson, Connecticut, and Penobscot: those which run into the G. of Mexico are the Mississippi, the Tombeckbe, and the Alabama: and those which run into the Pacific Ocean are the Columbia or Oregon and the Multnomah. The Mississippi is the longest river in the world, being 3,610 miles from its source in the Rocky M^s. to its mouth in the G. of Mexico: its chief tributaries are the Missouri, Arkansas, Red R., White R., Kansas, Platte, Yellowstone, Ohio, Illinois, and Tennessee.

32. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. No religion is established or supported by the government of the United States, every individual being left voluntarily to support that form of religion which he chooses. All denominations are placed on a level with each other, and no person is disqualified from holding or exercising any office by his religious profession. In most parts of the country, religion is said to be honourably supported, the great body of the people belonging to some one or other of the several denominations of Christians. The United States form a federal republic. Each State is independent of the others, and has a separate legislature, executive and judiciary; but the defence of the country, the regulation of commerce, and the united interests of the confederacy, are entrusted to the general government. The legislative power is vested in a Congress, composed of a Senate, consisting of two members from each State chosen by the state-legislatures for six years; and of a House of Representatives, elected by the people for two years, one representative being returned for every 40,000 inhabitants: in the slave-holding states every five slaves are counted as three freemen. The executive power is vested in a President, who, together with a Vice President, is chosen for four years by electors from all the states. The principal subordinate officers in the executive department are, the secretaries of state, of the treasury, of war, and of the navy. The Supreme Court is composed of seven judges, who are altogether independent of the legislature.

33. The inhabitants of the United States are Whites, Indians, and Negroes. The Whites are of European descent, and are chiefly English, especially the inhabitants of New England, Virginia, and the Carolinas. The Germans are most numerous in Pennsylvania, the Dutch in New York, and the French in Louisiana. Irish, Scotch, Swedes, and Spaniards, are likewise found in considerable numbers in different parts of the country. The Indians are independent of the government of the United States, and are in number half a million, of whom about one-fifth are warriors. The Negroes are mostly held in slavery, and are chiefly found in the Southern states.

34. The United States are more distinguished for the general diffusion of knowledge than for eminence in literature or science. The means of common education are widely extended, and there are numerous seminaries of learning throughout the country, though there are no literary establishments on so large a scale as many in Europe. The three principal colleges are at New Haven in Connecticut; Cambridge in Massachusetts: and Schenectady in New York.

The original number of States, at the formation of Government was thirteen; the present number is thirty-four, but, in addition to these, the small district of Columbia, and five large portions of country, styled Territories, belong to the Union. The States are distinguished into four general divisions, viz. The New England States, the Middle, the Southern, and the Western States. The metropolis of the United States is Washington, on the R. Potomack: the other great cities are Philadelphia, New York, Boston, Baltimore, New York, and New Orleans.

The names of these States, together with their chief towns and the population of the latter as returned in 1820, may be seen in the following

States, &c.		Chief Towns.	Population in 1820.
NEW ENGLAND STATES :	Maine - - -	Portland -	8,580
	New Hampshire - - -	Concord -	2,840
	Vermont - - -	Montpellier -	2,310
	Massachusetts - - -	Boston -	43,300
	Rhode Island - - -	Providence -	11,770
	Connecticut - - -	New Haven -	7,150
MIDDLE STATES :	New York - - -	Albany -	12,630
	New Jersey - - -	Trenton -	3,940
	Pennsylvania - - -	Harrisburg -	2,990
	Delaware - - -	Dover -	900
SOUTHERN STATES :	Maryland - - -	Annapolis -	2,260
	Columbia (District) -	Washington -	13,250
	Virginia - - -	Richmond -	12,050
	North Carolina - - -	Raleigh -	2,670
	South Carolina - - -	Columbia -	2,200
	Georgia - - -	Milledgeville -	2,070
	Alabama - - -	Cahawba -	1,200
	Mississippi - - -	Columbia -	1,230
	Louisiana - - -	New Orleans -	27,180
WESTERN STATES :	Tennessee - - -	Murfreesborough -	1,400
	Kentucky - - -	Frankfort -	1,680
	Ohio - - -	Columbus -	1,800
	Indiana - - -	Indianapolis -	500
	Illinois - - -	Vandalia -	600
	Missouri - - -	Jefferson -	500
TERRITORIES :	Michigan (Territory) -	Detroit -	1,600
	North West (Territory) -	—	—
	Arkansas (Territory) -	Little Rock -	1,240
	Missouri (Territory) -	—	—
	Florida (Territory) -	Pensacola -	1,500

37. The City of Washington, though the most of the United States, is inferior to several other country both in size and population. It is situated on the Maryland side of the R. Potomack, and is on a plan, which, when completed will render it the most commodious city in America. However, the buildings cover but a small portion of the intended site, and stand in four or five separate groups so that Washington at present exhibits the appearance not of one regular city, but of a collection of villages in which the public edifices appear of a disproportioned grandeur. The two chief public buildings are the Capitol and the President's house, which are both of stone. Other great buildings for the use of this state are the Arsenal. Washington contains 13,250 inhabitants.

38. Washington is situated in the district of Columbia, which is 10 miles square, and lies along both sides of the R. Potomack, about 10 miles from the junction of Chesapeake Bay with the Atlantic. This little district also includes Georgetown and Alexandria, and is under the immediate government of the Congress of the United States, having been ceded to the states of Virginia and Maryland in the year 1790. The city of Philadelphia is situated at the South Eastern extremity of Pennsylvania on the right bank of the R. Delaware, about 30 miles from that arm of the ocean called Delaware Bay. It was originally laid out by William Penn in the year 1683; it is now about nine miles in circuit, and contained 108,100 inhabitants. Philadelphia is a place of great opulence, and commerce is extensive and flourishing; its literary and benevolent institutions are numerous, and supported in a manner highly honourable to the city. It exceeds all other towns in the United States in the variety and excellence of its manufactures; its churches and other public buildings are spacious and elegant.

39. The city of New York is about seven miles in circuit, and is situated at the confluence of the Hudson and East Rivers, on the Southern end of Manhattan or New York Island. New York is the first commercial city in America: its population is greater than that of any other in the United States, and amounted in 1820 to 123,700 souls: the public buildings, taken together, are superior in splendour and magnificence to those of any other city of the United States. New York harbour is a large bay, which spreads eight miles from the city, and is from two to five miles broad: it is shut in by land on the E. and by Staten I. and New Jersey on the W., and communicates with the Atlantic on the S. by a strait called The Narrows. It is the literary and commercial metropolis of New England, and is situated on the shores of the Atlantic Ocean, at the head of Massachusetts Bay. It is the largest city on the Eastern coast of the State of Massachusetts, and contained 123,700 inhabitants in 1820. The first settlement was made by the Dutch, who colonized by the name of New Amsterdam. It was taken from the Dutch by the English in 1664, and has since that time been the seat of the British government.

miles above its entrance into Chesapeake Bay: it is the third city in size in the United States, and is a place of great wealth and trade, being admirably situated for the purposes of commerce. Charleston is much the largest town in the state of South Carolina, and was formerly the seat of its government. It is situated on a tongue of land, formed by the confluence of the rivers Cooper and Ashley, which unite just below the city, and form a spacious and convenient harbour communicating with the Atlantic Ocean. It is reckoned one of the gayest towns in the United States, and is a favourite port of the wealthy from the West Indies: its population in 1820 amounted to 24,780 souls. New Orleans is situated on the left bank of the R. Mississippi, about 80 miles from its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico: it stands on an island formed by the great river on one side, and the lakes Pontchartrain and Maurepas on the other, and is one of the greatest emporiums of commerce in America. The population of New Orleans in 1820 amounted to 27,180 souls. The principal navy yards of the United States are at Portsmouth, Charleston, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Washington, and Norfolk.

CHAPTER XXX.

MEXICO.

1. MEXICO is bounded on the N. by the United States, on the E. by the Gulf of Mexico, on the S. by Balleze, and Guatemala, and on the W. by the Pacific Ocean: it contains 1,362,900 square miles, and about 7,550,000 inhabitants.

2. Mexico was subdued by the Spaniards under Cortez, in 1521. Montezuma was at that time emperor of the country, and the inhabitants were considerably advanced in civilization; but when it became a province of Spain, it received the title of Mexico or New Spain, and was governed by a viceroy appointed by the king. The tyranny of the Spaniards, however, led to an insurrection, which broke out in the province of Durango, in the year 1810, and plunged the country into a terrible revolutionary state till the year 1821, when a declaration of independence was made at Yguala. The population of Mexico consists of four classes, viz. Whites, Indians, people of mixed extraction, and Negroes, the proportion of the Indians and mixed race being each double that of the Whites: the last mentioned people are subdivided into two branches, those born in Europe, called Chapetones, and those born in America called Creoles.

3. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. Mexico is traversed from N. to S. by the great chain of mountains which intersects the whole of North America: hence

one of the most remarkable peculiarities of the country is its great elevation, the land gradually rising from both coasts till it attains the height of from 6,000 to 8,000 feet, and spreading out into immense plains called Table-Land. The chief ranges are called the Sierra de las Grullas, Sierra de las Mimbres, and Sierra de Carcay: amongst the highest peaks are those of Pococatepetl, Orizaba, Fraide, Jorullo, and Colima, some of which are volcanoes.

4. Mexico is one of the richest countries in the world in mineral productions, particularly silver, and a great part of its inhabitants are employed in the mines: the quantity of this precious metal which it yields, is stated to be ten times greater than what is furnished by all the mines of Europe. Mexico suffers, in general, from the want of water and navigable rivers. The largest rivers are, the Rio Colorado and Gila, which run into the G. of California; the Rio del Norte, which flows into the G. of Mexico; and the Red River, which partly forms the E. boundary of the country, and is a tributary of the R. Mississippi. Its principal lakes are those of Timpanogos, Sale, Cayman, Chapala, Tezcuco, Tamiagua, and Terminos.

5. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The only form of religion acknowledged in Mexico is the Roman Catholic. Mexico is now a federal republic, similar in all the parts of its government to that of the United States; each state is independent of the other, and the executive power of the whole body is in the hands of a President. Many of the Indians, however, still remain unconquered, preserving their own form of government, and the rites of paganism.

6. Under the dominion of the Spaniards, Mexico was divided into twelve *Intendancies* and three Provinces; but the Mexican Confederation now consists of nineteen states and five provinces. The metropolis of the whole country is Mexico: the two principal ports are Vera Cruz on the Gulf of Mexico, which connects the country with Europe, and Acapulco on the Pacific Ocean, which connects it with Asia.

7. The names of the States and Territories into which Mexico is at present divided, together with their chief towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table :

States and Territories.		Chief Towns.	Estimated Population.
NORTHERN STATES :	Santa Fé de Nuevo Mexico (Territory) -	Santa Fé - -	4,500
	Coahuila and Texas - -	Montelovez - -	4,000
	Chihuahua - -	Chihuahua - -	12,000
	Upper California (Territory) - -	San Carlos de Monterey - -	2,000
	Lower California (Territory) - -	Loreto - -	1,500
	Sonora and Sinaloa - -	Culiacan - -	10,800
CENTRAL STATES :	Durango - -	Durango - -	12,000
	Nuevo Leon - -	Monterey - -	11,000
	Zacatecas - -	Zacatecas - -	35,000
	San Luis de Potosi - -	San Luis de Potosi - -	45,000
	Queretaro - -	Queretaro - -	43,000
	Guanaxuato - -	Guanaxuato - -	70,000
SOUTHERN STATES :	Kalisco or Guadalupe - -	Guadalupe - -	8,000
	Michoacan or Valladolid - -	Valladolid - -	18,000
	Colima (Territory) - -	Colima - -	3,000
	Mexico - -	Mexico - -	170,000
	Tlascala (Territory) - -	Tlascala - -	3,400
	Puebla de los Angeles - -	La Puebla - -	68,000
	Tamaulipas - -	Nuevo Santander - -	5,000
	Vera Cruz - -	Vera Cruz - -	16,000
	Oaxaca - -	Oaxaca - -	24,000
	Tabasco - -	Tabasco - -	3,000
	Yucatan - -	Merida - -	10,000
	Chiapa - -	Chiapa - -	5,000

8. The city of Mexico, the metropolis of the whole confederacy, the seat of government, and the residence of the President, is situated in the Southern part of the country, at an equal distance of 180 miles from Vera Cruz and Acapulco: it contains about 170,000 inhabitants. The original city of Mexico, or Tenochtitlan as it was called, was founded by the Mexicans in 1325, on a group of islands in Lake Tezcuco, which lies in the Valley of Mexico. It was taken by Cortez in 1521, after a siege of 75 days, during which, it is said, 100,000 Mexicans were slaughtered.

9. The ancient Tenochtitlan, which was stated by Cortez to be as large as Seville or Cordova, was completely destroyed, and the present city has risen

out of its ruins. It occupies the same site, but owing to the diminution of the waters in Lake Tezcucó, it stands on dry land, about a league distant from the lake : it is 7,494 feet above the level of the sea. Few cities can be compared with Mexico for the uniform level of its site, and the breadth and regularity of its streets. It forms a square of four miles, extending from North to South and from East to West, and is surrounded with a wall of uncemented stones. The architecture is mostly in a fine style, and the public buildings are magnificent : its general appearance is much heightened by the majestic character of the scenery by which it is surrounded. The mint of Mexico is one of the largest and richest in the world.

10. Vera Cruz is situated nearly due E. of Mexico, on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico ; it is enclosed by a simple wall, and is defended by the castle of St. Juan d'Ulloa, which stands on a small island about half a mile from the town. Vera Cruz is the great sea-port of Mexico, and the place through which almost all the trade between that country and Spain has been carried on. It is not only the centre of European and West Indian commerce, but receives also great quantities of East Indian produce by way of Acapulco, from the Philippine Islands. About 100 merchant vessels may anchor in its harbour, but it is neither commodious nor secure, being merely a bad anchorage among shallows, and so exposed that ships are frequently driven on shore. The regular population of Vera Cruz is about 16,000 souls ; but upon the arrival of a flotilla with merchandize, a fair is opened, which lasts some time and occasions a great resort of strangers.

11. Acapulco lies to the S. W. of Mexico on the shores of the Pacific Ocean ; it has an excellent bay and the best harbour on the Western coast of the country, being safe and open for vessels of any burthen. Acapulco was formerly very populous, but it is now only a miserable little town, containing about 4,000 inhabitants, who are almost all Africans ; it is surrounded with a volcanic mountain, which renders the atmosphere constantly thick and unwholesome.

CENTRAL AMERICA OR GUATIMALA.

12. The Republic of Central America, or Guatimala as it is also called, is bounded on the N. by Mexico and Balleze, on the E. by the Caribbean Sea, on the S. by the Isthmus of Panama, which belongs to Colombia, and on the W. by the Pacific Ocean : it contains 124,600 square miles, and about 1,500,000 inhabitants. Guatimala formerly belonged to Spain, and was governed by a Captain General appointed by the king ; but it was declared independent by the people in 1821.

13. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. The whole of Guatimala is intersected by the great Range of mountains which traverses the American continent from N. to South : some of its peaks rise to a great altitude, and it is said that amongst them there are no less than 20 volcanoes in constant activity. The rivers of the country are numerous but small ; the chief of them are the R. de la Passion, the Motagua, the Aguan, the Tinto, the R. de Segobia, Blewfield's R., and the R. St. Juan, all of which run into the G. of Mexico. The last mentioned river issues from the great L. of Nicaragua, which is in the S. part of Guatimala, and which completes the water communication across the Isthmus with the exception of an interval of about 4 leagues.

The great Bay of Honduras is on the N. E. coast of Guatemala, and receives the waters of the G. of Dulce which is higher up the country.

14. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The religion of Central America is the Roman Catholic, which is likewise professed by the greater part of the Indians. The government of the country is a federal republic, similar to that of the United States, the supreme executive power being confided to a President. Before the revolution, Guatemala was divided into provinces of different denominations, varying in number according to circumstances at different periods of its history. The federal states which at present compose the republic are six in number; the metropolis of the country is also called Guatemala.

15. The names of the federal states composing the Republic of Central America, together with their chief towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

States.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population.
WESTERN STATES: { Chiapa -	Ciudad Real - -	25,000
Guatemala -	Guatemala - -	50,000
San Salvador -	San Salvador - -	39,000
EASTERN STATES: { Nicaragua -	Leon - - -	38,000
Costa Rica -	Cartago - -	26,000
Honduras -	Chiquimula - -	37,000

16. Santiago de Guatemala, the metropolis of Central America, is situated in the Western part of the country, about 30 miles from the shores of the Pacific Ocean, and in the midst of a large handsome plain, surrounded on all sides by well cultivated hills of a moderate height: its elevation above the level of the sea is about 1,800 feet. It is said to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

17. The houses of Santiago de Guatemala are neatly built, but never exceed one story in height; many of the churches are large and of fine architecture, and the streets are clean and well paved. The present city is the third capital which has existed within the last 80 years. The original, which was erected on the declivity of a great volcano in a valley which fronted the Pacific, contained about 7,000 families and was destroyed by an earthquake in the year 1751. Being rebuilt a little farther to the Northward, in a romantic spot now called the Antigua, it was again destroyed by a more tremendous convulsion of nature in 1775: although the greater part of the inhabitants were buried in the ruins, and the city was removed by order of the government to the spot on which it now stands, which is 25 miles to the N.

of the Antigua, the latter is still a favourite place of resort; the Congress of the States is held in it, and it has seldom a population of less than 19,000 inhabitants.

18. The exterior communications of the Republic are chiefly carried on by the ports of Omoa, Izabal, and Truxillo, on the Gulf of Mexico; and those of Iztapa, Acajutla, and Realejo, on the South Sea. Omoa is the most important of all these, not only on account of its strength, which causes it to be considered the key of the country on this side, but from its being the great point of communication between Europe and the Federal States: it is situated on the shores of the Gulf of Honduras, about 160 miles to the N. E. of the metropolis. Iztapa, the old port of the country, is now but little frequented, though it is nearer than any of the others to Santiago.—The Northern and Eastern coasts of Guatemala, have obtained the name of the Mosquito Shore, from their being chiefly inhabited by the Mosquito Indians.

BALLEZE.

19. Balleze, Belize, or Walys, as the name is variously written, is a small territory bounded on the N. by Mexico, on the W. and S. by Guatemala, and on the E. by the Bay of Honduras: it contains about 6,400 square miles, and 20,000 inhabitants. Since the treaty of Versailles in 1786, it has belonged to the English, who have establishments in different parts of it for cutting down mahogany and logwood. The principal, and indeed the only regular establishment of the English, is also called Balleze, and is situated at the mouth of a river of the same name.

20. The town of Balleze contains about 1,500 inhabitants, and is perfectly inaccessible on the land side, except by descending the river, being closed in with woods and marshes. It occupies each side of the river's mouth, and is connected by a wooden bridge: the houses stand close upon the edge of the beach, and are in general composed of wooden buildings stuck upon posts, without any ground floor, and seldom more than one story high. It is defended by a fort, about half a mile from the right shore, standing upon a little island which is genuine British soil: for when the English first visited the Honduras shores to cut wood, the wants of the settlers at Balleze were so few that the ships generally went out in ballast, and this ballast they were compelled to discharge at a certain spot, where, being accumulated by time and increased by marine substances, it formed the island in question.

WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

21. The chain of islands, commonly called the West Indies or West India Islands, extends in a curve from Florida, the Southernmost part of the United States, to the mouth of the Orinoco in South America, near the the North Eastern extremity of the State of Colombia. These islands, which are very numerous, unitedly occupy a superficial extent of about 73,600 square miles, and

contain 2,500,000 inhabitants. They were named The West Indies by Columbus, under the notion that they formed a part of the great Indian continent, to which it was the object of his first voyage to find a Western passage.

22. Columbus had been led to entertain this opinion from the great size of India as described by the ancients, and from observing that between its extreme Eastern longitude as given by Ptolemy, and the group of the Azores, there was only an interval of the third part of a sphere: though this mistake has been discovered, the name to which it gave rise has still been retained. The French call the West India Islands the Antilles, a name which is stated to have been derived from that of the fabulous island Antillia, placed by the Spaniards some distance to the Westward of the Azores in the Atlantic Ocean. The mathematicians and philosophers of the middle ages, fancying that some lands were necessary on the opposite part of the globe to balance the known countries, laid down some at random, and gave to these imaginary lands the name of *Ante-Insulæ* or *Antinsulæ*, which the Spaniards fashioned into that of *Antillia*.

23. Cuba is the largest and Westernmost of the West India Islands, and separates the Gulf of Mexico from the Carribbean Sea: Trinidad is the Southernmost, and Barbadoes, the Easternmost island of the chain. Cuba, Hayti (otherwise called St. Domingo and Hispaniola), Jamaica, and Porto Rico, are the four most considerable islands, and are hence sometimes called the Great Antilles: the remainder of the chain between Porto Rico and Trinidad is known by the name of the Caribbee Islands, or the Little Antilles. The Carribbean Sea lies between the West India Islands on the N. and E., Colombia on the S., and Guatemala on the W. The Bahama or Lucayos Islands diverge from the main group, stretching in a North Westerly direction from Hayti to the Eastern coast of Florida.

24. European colonies have been established in most of the West India Islands: hence they are nearly all under the dominion of European powers, with the exception of St. Domingo, which formerly belonged to France, but has of late years obtained its independence, and assumed the title of the Republic of Hayti. Cuba and Porto Rico belong to Spain: Martinique, Guadeloupe, Mariagalante, and a few others, to France: Saba, St. Eustathius, Buen Ayre, and Curaçao, to the Netherlands: St. Thomas, St. John, and Sa. Cruz, to Denmark:

St. Bartholomew, to Sweden: Jamaica, the Bahamas, Dominica, St. Lucia, Barbadoes, Grenada, Tobago, Trinidad, and most of the others to Great Britain.

25. The West India Islands are frequently divided into the Windward and Leeward Islands, so called in consequence of the wind blowing upon them almost always from the same quarter, viz. the North East: these names, however, are used in different ways according to the situation of the speaker; for all the West India Islands may be called the Leeward Islands in respect of Barbadoes, whilst on the other hand the inhabitants of Central America would rightly describe the same islands as lying to Windward. These names were obtained from the old Spanish navigators, who, in speaking of the West India Islands, usually distinguished them into two classes, by the terms Bartovento and Sotovento, i. e. Windward and Leeward Islands; the Caribbean constituting, in strict propriety, the former class, and the four large islands of Cuba, Hayti, Jamaica, and Porto Rico, the latter. The French, Spaniards, and Dutch, generally call all the Caribbee Islands the Windward Islands; but the English navigators appropriate both terms to the Caribbee Islands, subdividing them according to their situation with respect to the Trade Wind, the Windward Islands terminating by their arrangement with Martinique, and the Leeward commencing at Dominica.

26. The names of the principal West India Islands, together with those of the several Powers to whom they belong, may be seen in the following table:

Governing Powers.	Islands.	Governing Powers.	Islands.
GREAT BRITAIN:	Jamaica.	FRANCE:	Martinique.
	Bahamas or Lucayos.		Guadaloupe.
	Tortola.		Mariagalante.
	Virgin Gorda.		The Saints.
	Aneguada.		Deseada.
	Anguilla.	INDEPENDENT:	St. Martin (Northern part of).
	Barbuda.		Hayti or St. Domingo.
	St. Christopher's.	SPAIN:	Cuba.
	Nevis.		Porto Rico.
	Montserrat.	THE NETHERLANDS:	Saba.
DENMARK:	Antigua.		St. Eustathius.
	Dominica.		Buen Ayre.
	St. Lucia.		Curaçao.
	St. Vincent.		Oruba.
	Barbadoes.		St. Martin (Southern part of).
	Grenada.	COLOMBIA:	Testigos.
	The Grenadines.		Margarita.
	Tobago.		Blanca.
	Trinidad.		Tortuga Salada.
SWEDEN:	St. Thomas.		Horchilla.
	St. John.		Rocca.
	Sa. Cruz.		Aves.
	St. Bartholomew.		

27. Jamaica, the largest and most important of the West India Islands which belong to Great Britain, lies off the S. E. part of Cuba at a distance of 90 miles: it is divided into three counties, viz. Middlesex, Surrey, and Cornwall, containing a superficial extent of about 3,200 square miles, and 100,000 inhabitants, of whom 340,000 are negroes. Its legislature is composed of the Governor, of a Council of twelve gentlemen appointed by the crown, and of a House of Assembly consisting of 43 members elected by the freeholders. The Assembly and the Governor have the power of making laws; but the latter can put a veto on all the acts of the legislative body, and a farther power of totally rejecting them is reserved by the crown. The principal towns are, Kingston the capital, containing 35,000 inhabitants; Spanish Town or Santiago de la Vega, Port Royal, Savanna la Mar, and Montego Bay.

28. Cuba, the largest of all the West India Islands, lies to the N. of Jamaica, to the W. of Hayti and the Bahamas, to the S. of Florida, and to the E. of Mexico; it contains about 32,600 square miles, and 620,000 inhabitants. It is governed by a Captain General appointed by the King of Spain, and is divided into two governments, viz. Cuba, or Santiago de Cuba, and the Havannah, which are again subdivided into 14 provinces. The capital and the seat of government is The Havannah, which is situated on the N. W. coast of the island, and contains about 130,000 inhabitants; the other chief towns are Santiago de Cuba, Villa del Principe, Bayamo, and Matanzas.

29. The Bahamas, or Lucayos as they are also called, lie to the N. of Cuba and to the S. E. of Florida; their number is reckoned at 500, but many of them are mere rocks, and others, on account of the difficulty of navigation, are little known. The most important amongst them are, Bahama, Abaco, Andros, Eleuthera, San Salvador or Guanahani (the first land seen by Columbus in the New World), Exuma, and Inague. Between Cuba and the Bahamas on the East, and the United States on the West, is the remarkable current of the Gulf Stream, which runs along the coast at unequal distances, from Cape Florida to the banks of Newfoundland, where it turns off and runs through the Azores. Its distance from the shores of the Southern states is about 75 miles, increasing towards the North: its width is 40 or 50 miles, and its rapidity varies from five miles an hour off the coast of Florida, to one mile an hour opposite to New England.

30. St. Domingo or Hispaniola, called Hayti by its original natives and the present possessors, is one of the largest of the West India Islands; it is situated between the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico, and contains about 2,300 square miles, and 800,000 inhabitants, who are nearly all negroes. It was formerly divided between the French and Spaniards, the Eastern part (it belonging to the latter people; but in the year 1801 the blacks declared themselves free, though their independence was not finally acknowledged till 1825. The form of government is republican, the legislative power being confided to a chamber of representatives, a senate, and a president who is appointed for life. The Roman Catholic religion is that of the state, but all professions are tolerated. Hayti is divided into five departments, viz. Artisanite, the East, North, West, and South, departments. Its capital is Port au Prince, situated on the Western coast of the island, at the extremity of the Bay of Gonaive, and containing about 15,000 inhabitants: the other chief towns are St. Domingo, Cape François, and St. Nicholas.

31. Porto Rico, or Boriqua as it is called by the natives, is the Easternmost and the smallest of the four great West India Islands: it lies between St. Domingo and the Caribbee Islands, and contains about 2,400 square

miles, and 150,000 inhabitants. It is governed by a Captain General, appointed by the King of Spain: its chief town, St. Juan de Porto Rico, is situated on its Northern shore, and contains 30,000 inhabitants.—The Caribbee Islands were so called from their original inhabitants, the Caribs, a fierce and warlike people, who long resisted the invasion of their country by the Europeans: such of them as escaped from the destructive wars in which they involved themselves, have become civilized, or have passed over to South America and settled near the mouths of the Orinoco.

32. About midway between Jamaica and Newfoundland lie the Bermudas, or Somers' Islands as they are also called, which belong to the British: they are more than 400 in number, but for the most part so small and so barren, that they have neither inhabitants nor name. The most considerable of them are St. George, St. David, Cooper, Ireland, Somerset, Long Island, Bird Island, and Nonsuch: the total number of inhabitants in all the islands amounts to about 15,000.

CHAPTER XXXI.

COLOMBIA.

1. THE Republic of Colombia is the most Northern of all the States of South America. It is bounded on the E. by Guyana and Brazil, on the S. by Peru, on the W. by the Pacific Ocean, and on the N. by the Caribbean Sea and Guatemala, being separated from the last by the narrow isthmus of Darien: it contains about 808,800 square miles, and 3,350,000 inhabitants.

2. Prior to 1811 this state was under the dominion of Spain, and was divided into two separate parts or governments, viz. the Viceroyalty of New Granada, and the Captaincy General of Caracas or Venezuela; but at that period these two great provinces declared themselves independent of the mother country, and after two years of hard fighting, obtained complete freedom, and united themselves into one republic under the name of Colombia.

3. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. The Western part of the country is traversed by the lofty range of the Andes, which enters it through the Isthmus of Panama, and throws off several ridges towards the Caribbean Sea. In its S. part are found the celebrated summits of Chimborazo, Antisana, Pichinca, Cotopaxi, Cayamba, Ourcou, and Altair. The E. provinces of Colombia are watered by the river Orinoco and its many tributaries:

at R. Amazon, with its adjuncts the Japura, Putu-
Tunguragua, &c. are in the Southern part: and
N. W. is the R. Magdalena which flows into the
Caribbean Sea. The Isthmus of Panama, or Darien as
also called, which joins North to South America,
the Republic of Colombia; in its narrowest part it
is more than 25 miles across. On its Southern side
is the Bay of Panama, so called from the town of
Panama standing upon it. The Gulf of Darien is on
the East side of the Isthmus, between it and the mainland
of Colombia: and farther Eastward is the G. of Mara-
caribo which is connected with the L. of Maracaybo in
the interior of the country.

RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The religion of
the State is the Roman Catholic, but all professions are
permitted. The government is similar to that of the
United States, the legislative power being confided to
Representatives, senators, and a president who is chosen
for four years. Colombia is divided into twelve de-
partments, which again are subdivided into provinces:
the Capital is Santa Fé de Bogota, in the North Western
part of the country.

The names of the several departments of Colombia, together with their
chief towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the
following table:

Departments.	Chief Towns.	Estimated Population.
SOUTHERN DEPARTMENTS:	Orinoco - -	Cumana - - 18,000
	Venezuela - -	Caracas - - 30,000
	Apure - -	Varinas - - 9,000
	Zulia - -	Maracaybo - - 26,000
	Magdalena - -	Cartagena - - 28,000
	Isthmo - -	Panama - - 11,000
CENTRAL DEPARTMENTS:	Cundinamarca -	Santa Fé de Bogota 60,000
	Boyaca - -	Tunja - - 2,000
	Cauca - -	Popayan - - 9,000
SOUTHERN DEPARTMENTS:	Equador - -	Quito - - 70,000
	Guayaquil - -	Guayaquil - - 20,000
	Assuay - -	Cuenca - - 15,000

Santa Fé de Bogota, the metropolis of Colombia
the seat of its government, is situated on the banks

of a little river, which falls into the Magdalena and thus communicates with the Caribbean Sea : it contains many handsome public and private buildings, and enjoys a high degree of prosperity, but it is neither so large nor so flourishing a place as Quito. It is said to contain 60,000 inhabitants.

7. The city of Quito lies in the South Western part of the country, just under the Equator and only 90 miles distant from the shores of the Atlantic Ocean : it is situated on the Eastern slope of the Andes, and on the declivity of the volcanic mountain Pichinca, at an elevation of 9,536 feet above the level of the sea. Owing to the inequalities of the ground, the streets are very irregular and uneven ; and so numerous are the crevices of the mountain in the environs, that many of the houses are built on arches : it is subject to dreadful earthquakes, which often surprise the inhabitants in the midst of apparent security, and one of which, at the latter end of the last century, destroyed most of the surrounding villages, and buried more than 40,000 persons beneath the ruins. The present population of Quito is estimated at 70,000 souls. The principal ports of Colombia on the Caribbean Sea are, Cumana, La Guayra, Maracaybo, St. Marta, Cartagena, and Porto Bello ; on the Pacific Ocean are, Panama, Cupica, and Guayaquil.

GUYANA.

8. Guyana is bounded on the S. by Brazil, on the W. by Colombia, on the N. and E. by the Atlantic Ocean is portioned out betwixt the English, Dutch, and French, the English occupying the Western, and the French the Eastern part, whilst the Dutch settlements are in the centre.

9. The name of Guyana or Goyana was formerly applied to the whole of country on the Atlantic between the mouths of the rivers Amazon, and was divided into five great parts, severally denominated, English, Dutch, French, and Portuguese, Guyana. Its extent, however, considerably restricted both on the Western and Eastern sides, Spanish Guyana forming at present the greater part of the Western, and Portuguese Guyana the Eastern part of the country. The contents and estimated population of each of these parts are as follows :

English Gu-
Dutch
French

It contains about 15,000 inhabitants. At the mouth of the Essequibo, which runs to the Westward of Demerary, is the settlement of Essequibo; thence is in the opposite direction, or on the Eastern side of Demerary, its chief town is New Amsterdam.—Dutch Guyana is frequently called the Colony of Surinam, from the R. Surinam which runs through the middle of it; a few miles up this river stands the capital, Paramaribo, which contains about 20,000 inhabitants.—French Guyana is also called Cayenne, from the river of that name by which it is watered. At the mouth of this river is the town of Cayenne, containing about 1,500 inhabitants, and situated upon a small island known by the same appellation.

EMPIRE OF BRAZIL.

11. This enormous empire, which comprehends nearly the half of South America, is bounded on the N. by Guyana and Colombia; on the W. by Peru, Upper Peru, Paraguay, and La Plata; on the S. and E. by the Atlantic Ocean. It contains about 2,659,700 square miles, or more than all Europe, and 4,000,000 inhabitants, or less than one third of the population of England and Wales.

12. The name of Brazil or Bresil-je is said to be derived from that of the *brass* (or Brazil-wood) so much used in dyeing, which is found in great quantities in the country: it was at first only applied to the maritime districts between the R. Para and the Rio Grande, the interior provinces being distinguished by the names of the Country of the Amazons and Paraguay, from the two great rivers so called by which they are watered. The whole of the Portuguese possessions in South America have now, however, been for some time known by the name of Brazil, and were governed for many years by a Viceroy appointed by the king of Portugal. When the French invaded the last mentioned country in 1807, the Royal Family thought proper to remove from Lisbon to Rio Janeiro where they remained till 1821, when they returned home. In the following year the Prince Regent of Portugal was proclaimed Emperor of Brazil, and the latter country declared altogether independent of Portugal.

13. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. Brazil is traversed by several ranges of beautiful mountains, which rise to the height of from 3,000 to 6,000 feet above the level of the sea; they have been long famed for their precious produce of gold and diamonds, which are chiefly found in the beds of the mountain-torrents, where the stream is most rapid. The principal range is called the Cordillera Geral. The most important river in Brazil is the Amazon, which runs through its Northern provinces and discharges its waters into the Atlantic Ocean close under the Equinoctial Line: its chief Brazilian tributaries are, the Tapajos, the Madeira, the Negro, the Jurua, and

the Jutay. The other great Brazilian rivers are the Xingu; the Para, with its two tributaries the Tocantins and Araguay; the Paraiba; the St. Francisco: all of which run into the Atlantic Ocean. The upper parts of the Parana and Paraguay are likewise in Brazil.

14. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The prevailing religion is the Roman Catholic of a very bigoted character; but the Indians, who inhabit the interior of the country and have not as yet been reduced to obedience, are pagans. The government is representative, like that of the neighbouring states. Brazil is at present divided into eighteen provinces. Its metropolis is Rio Janeiro, situated in its South Eastern part upon the shores of the Atlantic Ocean: it is said to contain 200,000 inhabitants.

15. The names of the several provinces of Brazil, together with their chief towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table:

Provinces.		Chief Towns.	Estimated Population.
NORTHERN PROVINCES:	Para - -	Para or Belem - -	28,000
	Maranham - -	San Luiz de Maranham - -	3,500
	Piauhi - -	Parnaiba - - -	15,000
	Ceara - -	Ceara - - -	1,500
	Paraiba - -	Paraiba - - -	8,000
	Alagoas - -	Alagoas or Villa de Magda- lena - - -	5,000
	Pernambuco -	Pernambuco or Recife -	55,000
CENTRAL PROVINCES:	Sergipe - -	Sergipe del Rey - -	20,000
	Bahia - -	San Salvador or Bahia -	90,000
	Goyaz - -	Villa Boa or Goyaz - -	8,000
	Matto Grosso -	Villa Bella - - -	5,000
	San Pedro -	San Pedro del Rey - -	3,000
SOUTHERN PROVINCES:	San Pablo -	San Pablo - - -	3,000
	Minas Geraes -	Villa Rica - - -	20,000
	Espiritu Santo -	Espiritu Santo or Victoria	3,000
	Rio Janeiro -	Rio Janeiro - - -	200,000
	Santa Catharina	Desterro - - -	7,000
	Rio Grande -	Rio Grande - - -	3,000

16. Rio Janeiro, the metropolis of Brazil, is the seat of its government and the great mart of its commerce; it stands on a plain close to the shore, on the W. side of the bay, and at the foot of several high mountains which rise behind it. The streets are generally straight and well paved, but are

the most part extremely dirty: most of them are terminated by chapels, where the people flock every evening to offer up their devotions. The Imperial palace skirts the beach, and is seen to great advantage from the landscape; the citadel, called St. Sebastian, stands on the top of a hill that commands the whole town. Most of the state and splendour that belong to a city is to be found in the churches, some of which are well built, though they are loaded with ornaments generally in a bad taste. There is said to be more religious parade in this city than in any Papal city in the world, there being a procession in some parish every day, with various insignia splendid and costly in a high degree: but, notwithstanding this, the state of the mass education is extremely low. About two-thirds of the inhabitants of Lima are said to be slaves. The harbour is one of the finest in the world, being spacious, secure, and easy of access, owing to the daily moderation of sea and land breezes: its entrance is about a mile wide, and is protected in every direction by heavy batteries.

17. The next most important town after the capital is San Salvador or Pisco, situated to the N. of it, about midway up the coast: it lies at the entrance of the Bay of All Saints, and is even more dirty and neglected than Lima. The town is situated on the declivity of a hill and is divided into high and low, the latter consisting of certain streets, filled with store-houses, on the shores of the bay, for the convenience of loading and unloading. The churches are splendid and extensive edifices, but, like most of the other great buildings, they are rapidly falling to decay.

PERU.

18. Peru is bounded on the N. by Colombia, on the E. by Brazil and Upper Peru, and on the S. and W. by Chili and the Pacific Ocean: it contains 343,200 square leagues, or more than twice as many as Spain, and about 750,000 inhabitants.

19. This country was conquered by the Spaniards under Pizarro and Almagro about the year 1532, at which time the Peruvians had advanced to a considerable degree of civilization: it was then governed by an Inca, whose capital was Cuzco, and was much larger than it is at present, as it included Quito on the North and Potosi on the South. After its conquest it became a viceroyalty of Spain, and was subdivided into seven intendancies; but in 1821 the people declared themselves independent, and formed themselves into a republic.

20. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. The Western part of Peru is traversed by the great cordillera of the Andes, which runs parallel with the coast only at a few leagues distance from it, and sends off many branches into the interior: it is in general very lofty, and many of its peaks are volcanic. It abounds in mines of gold, silver, and quicksilver, but they have been very badly managed. All the rivers of Peru lie to the Eastward of the Andes,

and are tributaries of the great R. Amazon : the chief of them are the Tunguragua, the Huallaga, the Ucayali, the Paro or Beni, and the Apurimac. The S. E. frontier of Peru is partly formed by Lake Titicaca, which is elevated and about 60 fathoms deep ; its waters are neither salt nor brackish are muddy and so nauseous as not to be drunk.

21. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The predominant religion of Peru is the Roman Catholic. The government is republican, and similar in its forms to those of the new American states. The whole country is divided into seven departments : the capital is Lima, which is situated close to the shores of the Pacific Ocean, and is estimated to contain 70,000 inhabitants.

22. The names of the several departments of Peru, together with their chief towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table :

Departments.			Chief Towns.		
NORTHERN DEPARTMENTS :	Truxillo	- -	Truxillo	- -	-
	Junin or Tarma	- -	Tarma	- -	-
	Lima	- -	Lima	- -	-
SOUTHERN DEPARTMENTS :	{ Ayacucho or Huamanga - - }		Huamanga	- -	-
	Cuzco	- -	Cuzco	- -	-
	Puno	- -	Puno	- -	-
	Arequipa	- -	Arequipa	- -	-

23. Lima, the metropolis of Peru, is situated about two leagues from the shores of the Pacific Ocean, in the spacious and delightful valley of the R. Rimac, and it is from this Indian word that the name of the city has been derived by a corrupt pronunciation. It was founded in 1535 by Francisco Pizarro, who called it Ciudad de los Reyes : it is of a triangular shape, and is five miles in circuit, and is surrounded by a wall flanked with several bastions. The streets are broad, straight, and well-paved : the houses are only one story high, are handsome and commodious ; they have tiled roofs, and are constructed of wood on account of the tremendous earthquakes which the city is subject. Lima abounds with churches, chapels, convents, nunneries, colleges, and hospitals, some of which are very magnificently and splendidly decorated. Its port, Callao, is the most beautiful, as well as the largest and safest, on the whole Western coast of South America : it is fortified, and contains nearly 4,000 inhabitants.

24. Cuzco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian Empire, lies to the south of Lima, in the interior of the country, on the banks of the R. Quilichu.

which communicates with the Apurimac and so with the Amazon. It was founded, according to tradition, in 1043, by Manca Capac, the first Inca of Peru, on a rough and unequal plain formed by the skirts of various mountains. When the Spaniards took it in 1534 they found the wall of an extraordinary height, and built of stone with great neatness; amongst the principal edifices were a splendid temple of the sun, and a number of magnificent palaces, whose principal ornaments were of gold and silver which glittered on the walls. Cuzco is still a large and handsome city; the cathedral church is of an elegant and noble architecture, and many of the other public buildings are very striking: more than three-fourths of the inhabitants are Indians.

UPPER PERU OR BOLIVIA.

25. Upper Peru, or Bolivia as it is also called, is bounded on the N. and E. by Brazil, on the S. by La Plata, and on the W. by the Atlantic Ocean and Peru: it contains about 369,700 square miles, and 800,000 inhabitants.

26. It was formerly included within the limits of the Empire of Peru, and subsequently within those of the viceroyalty of the same name, but the Spaniards latterly annexed it to Buenos Ayres: it threw off the yoke of the mother country about the same time that Peru itself did, but it was not until the year 1825 that it declared itself independent.

27. GREAT NATURAL FEATURES. Upper Peru touches upon a very small portion of the Pacific Ocean. The great range of the Andes traverses its S. W. part, and likewise forms the line of demarcation between it and the Southern part of Peru Proper: it also sends off many arms into the interior, which together with the great range itself are very rich in the precious metals. Bolivia contains many considerable rivers, but they are all tributaries either of the Amazon or Paraguay: amongst the former may be mentioned the Paro or Beni, the Mamore, and the Branco; amongst the latter the Pilcomayo and Oxuquis.

28. RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The inhabitants of Upper Peru are mostly Roman Catholics, though there are still many Pagan Indians in the interior part of the country who have never been subdued. The government of the state is republican, similar in its arrangements to those of the neighbouring powers. The territory of Upper Peru is divided into five departments: its metropolis is Chuquisaca, or La Plata as it is also named, which contains about 18,000 inhabitants.

29. The names of these departments, together with their chief towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table :

Departments,			Chief Towns.	Estimated Population.
WESTERN DEPARTMENTS:	{ La Paz	- - -	La Paz - - -	20,000
	{ Potosi	- - -	Potosi - - -	15,000
	{ Charcas	- - -	Chuquisaca or LaPlata	18,000
EASTERN DEPARTMENTS:	{ Cochabamba	- - -	Cochabamba - -	7,000
	{ Santa Cruz de la	- - -	Santa Cruz de la Sierra	10,000
	{ Sierra	- - -		

30. Chuquisaca, the capital of Upper Peru, is situated in the Southern part of the country, on an elevated plain between the sources of the two rivers Grande and Pilcomayo, the latter of which runs into the Paraguay, and the former into the Madeira and so into the Amazon. The city is neatly built, but the houses are seldom more than one story high; some of the churches are very spacious and handsome, and are profusely ornamented: most of the inhabitants are Indians. Chuquisaca has received the name of La Plata, from its being built near some silver mines. A few miles from it is the famous town of Potosi, remarkable above every place in the continent for its inexhaustible silver mines. These mines, from the time of their being first worked, in 1545, to the beginning of the present century, had produced silver to the amount of more than £.237,000,000, including only what had paid the royal duties; but if the gold and smuggled metal were added, the amount would be very much greater. They have caused the destruction of thousands of human beings; for at one time 16,000 Indians were constantly forced to work in them, but at present only 2,000 miners are employed, who are well paid and work from choice. The town of Potosi is about 11,000 feet above the level of the ocean: it was founded A. D. 1547, and in about fifty years afterwards its population is stated to have amounted to 160,000 souls; but at present it is not one tenth of this number. It contains many large and handsome edifices, amongst which the old Spanish mint is one of the most remarkable.

PARAGUAY.

31. The Dictatorship of Paraguay, as it is affectedly styled, touches to the N. and E. on Brazil, to the S. and W. on La Plata, being bounded on the three last mentioned quarters by the rivers Parana and Paraguay, so that it is a great inland peninsula: it contains about 75,300 square miles, and 500,000 inhabitants. The inhabitants have been now for many years governed by a whimsical despot, who tyrannizes over them as he chooses, and is pleased to be styled the Dictator of Paraguay. His capital and the seat of government is Assumpcion, near the junction of the R. Pilcomayo with

the Paraguay or La Plata; it was originally a small fort for the protection of the Spanish settlers, but from the convenience of its situation it has grown into a city, and contains a population of about 15,000 souls, nine-tenths of whom are Indians.

32. Paraguay was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, who sailed up the R. Parana in the year 1526; but the country was first subjugated by the Spaniards, who parcelled out the Indians amongst them as slaves, and used them with the greatest harshness and cruelty. About the middle of the 16th century the Jesuits made their appearance in Paraguay, which some time afterwards they persuaded the king of Spain to trust entirely to their management; they likewise induced him to render them independent of the governors of the neighbouring provinces, and to forbid any Europeans whatever from crossing the limits of the territory, lest they should communicate their ideas to the new converts, and thus destroy the intentions and prosperity of the mission. During the latter half of the last century, however, when the king of Spain drove all the Jesuits out of his American states, the inhabitants of Paraguay became once more subject to the civil governors of Spain.

LA PLATA OR THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

33. The republic of La Plata, or of the United Provinces of South America, or the Argentine Republic, as it is variously called, touches to the N. upon Upper Peru and Paraguay, to the E. upon Brazil and the Atlantic Ocean, to the S. upon Patagonia, and to the W. upon Chili. It contains about 829,700 square miles, and 1,800,000 inhabitants. When under the dominion of Spain it was styled the Viceroyalty of La Plata, or of the Rio de la Plata, or of Buenos Ayres, but since its declaration of independence in 1816 it has assumed one of the abovementioned titles. The form of government is that of the neighbouring countries, and the religion of the state is the Roman Catholic. La Plata is at present divided into fifteen provinces: its metropolis is Buenos Ayres, containing 100,000 inhabitants, and situated on the Southern shore of the great estuary of the Rio de la Plata.

34. The great range of the Andes extends along the whole Western side of the country, and sends off many ranges into the interior, some of which are remarkably rich in mines of the precious metals. The Eastern part of the republic is watered by the Rio de la Plata, and its tributaries the Paraguay, Pilcomayo, Vermejo, and

Uruguay: the rivers Salado and Dulce are in the interior of the country, and lose themselves in L. Salado: the R. Colorado and R. Negro are in the S. part on the borders of Patagonia.

35. The names of the several provinces composing the Argentine Republic, together with their chief towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table :

Provinces.		Chief Towns.	Estimated Population.
NORTHERN PROVINCES :	Tarija - - -	Tarija - - -	10,000.
	Salta - - -	Salta - - -	11,000
	Tucuman - - -	San Miguel de Tucuman	7,000
	Catamarca - - -	Catamarca - - -	8,000.
	Santiago del Estero - - -	Santiago del Estero - - -	13,000
	Rioja - - -	Rioja la Nueva - - -	6,000
	Corrientes - - -	Corrientes - - -	5,000
SOUTHERN PROVINCES :	Misiones - - -	Candelario - - -	4,000.
	San Juan - - -	San Juan de la Frontera	18,000
	Cuyo or Mendoza - - -	Mendoza - - -	23,000
	San Luis - - -	San Luis de la Punta	5,000
	Buenos Ayres - - -	Buenos Ayres - - -	100,000
	Cordova - - -	Cordova - - -	14,000
	Santa Fé or Entre Rios	Santa Fé - - -	20,000
	Monte Video or Banda Oriental - - -	Monte Video - - -	23,000.

36. Buenos Ayres, the metropolis of the United Provinces of the Rio de la Plata, derived its name from the salubrity of its climate: it is the seat of government, as well as the place of meeting for the congress, and is the great depôt for much of the produce of the interior of the country. There is no harbour at Buenos Ayres, nor so much as a mole to facilitate the landing of goods, so that ships can only come within three leagues of it; here they unload their cargoes into boats, which enter the little R. Chuelo, whence the merchandize is conveyed over land to the city; there is, however, a sort of bay at Baragon, about ten miles below Buenos Ayres, where ships take lading, or run in for the purpose of being careened. The city is built with great regularity, the streets being generally straight and broad; the houses are mostly built of brick or chalk, with flat roofs, and plastered on the outside. About one fourth of the inhabitants are Europeans; the rest are Indians, Creoles, and Negroes.

37. On the opposite side of the estuary of the Rio de la Plata stands the town of Monte Video, which derives its name from a mountain that hangs over it, and on which is a lighthouse that has a very extensive view. It is a commodious and flourishing place, and once contained nearly 50,000 inhabitants; but the late destructive wars have reduced this number more than one half. The town of Mendoza lies at the foot of the Andes, on the Western side of the country, and close on the borders of Chili: its situation on the limits of the two countries, renders it an important place, and hence it is become the great depôt for all goods passing between them. It stands

on the banks of a river of the same name, which enters the R. Colorado, and communicates to it the name of the R. Mendoza, by which it is sometimes described.

CHILI.

38. The Republic of Chili is bounded on the N. by Upper Peru, on the E. by the United Provinces of the Rio de la Plata, on the S. and W. by the Pacific Ocean : it contains about 129,200 square miles, and 1,200,000 inhabitants. Chili formerly belonged to Spain and was governed by a Viceroy, who divided it into two intendencies, but in 1818 the people made a declaration of independence, which they were enabled finally to establish : they have fashioned their Government upon the model of the neighbouring republics ; the Roman Catholic religion is the religion of the state. Chili is at present divided into nine provinces, including the territory occupied by the Araucanians, a warlike race of Indians, who are implacable enemies of the Spaniards, and whom the latter people were never able to subdue. The capital of the country is Santiago, which is situated nearly in its centre, and contains about 40,000 inhabitants.

39. Chili consists of a long, narrow plain, which gradually rises in elevation as it recedes from the coast and approaches the Andes : owing to this sloping conformation it is fertilized and beautified by numerous rivers flowing from the great Cordillera, of which upwards of fifty communicate directly with the Pacific Ocean. The Andes entirely form its Eastern frontier, and are said to contain 14 volcanoes in a state of constant eruption, besides many others that discharge smoke at intervals. The rivers of Chili are all small, but in general they are very impetuous : the chief of them are, the Limari, the Chuapa, the Maipo, the Biobio, and the Maule.

40. The names of the several provinces of Chili, together with their chief towns, and the estimated population of the latter, may be seen in the following table :

Provinces.		Chief Towns.	Estimated Population.
NORTHERN PROVINCES :	Coquimbo	Coquimbo or La Serena	4,000
	Aconcagua	Aconcagua	9,000
	Santiago	Santiago	40,000
	Colchagua	San Fernando	9,000
SOUTHERN PROVINCES :	Maule	Curico	5,000
	Concepcion	Concepcion or La Mocha	13,000
	Arauco	Villarica	4,000
	Valdivia	Valdivia	12,000
	Chiloe	San Carlos	5,000

41. Santiago, the metropolis of Chili, is equidistant from the frontiers of Upper Peru and Patagonia, about 50 miles from the coast of the Pacific Ocean, and nearly as far from the foot of the great Cordillera: it stands on the banks of the little R. Mapocho, which runs into the Maipo. Its situation is happily chosen; the streets are regular, the houses well-built, and some of the public edifices very magnificent. The port of Santiago is Valparaiso, which stands on an elevated and rugged promontory running out into the Pacific: it has an excellent harbour, every where free from rocks and shoals, and is touched at by all ships from Peru, as well as by many of those which are bound from Europe to the South Seas. It contains about 8,000 inhabitants. About 400 miles to the W. of Valparaiso, in the open sea, are the two islands of Masafuera and Juan Fernandez; the latter is remarkable for the adventures of Alexander Selkirk, a Scotch sailor, who having been left behind by his captain, lived there in solitude for four years, a circumstance which gave rise to the well-known romance of Robinson Crusoe.

PATAGONIA.

42. Patagonia is the name given to the Southern extremity of America. It is bounded on the N. by the United Provinces of the Rio de la Plata, and on all other sides by the ocean; Capé Horn, its Southernmost point being usually considered as the common limit between the Atlantic on the East, and the Pacific on the West. It contains about 257,700 square miles, and 500,000 inhabitants. At its Southern extremity is the Terra del Fuego or *Land of Fire*, an island or group of islands so named by Magellan, because during the night he perceived many fires there, which he supposed were volcanoes. Cape Horn is the Southernmost point of a small island below Terra del Fuego, and is remarkable for the tempestuous seas which roll off it, as well as for an extensive sandbank which is thought to surround it like the bank of the Cape of Good Hope.

43. Patagonia is sometimes called the Land of Magellan or Magalbaens, from its having been discovered at the commencement of the 16th century by the famous Portuguese navigator of that name, after whom the narrow and dangerous passage, which separates the Terra del Fuego from the mainland of America, has been called the Strait of Magellan. Very little is known concerning the inhabitants of Patagonia; they are divided into many nations, or tribes, and are of larger stature than the neighbouring Indians, though by no means so tall as some accounts have represented them to be. They are sunk in the most deplorable state of barbarism and ignorance, and pay superstitious adoration to the sun and moon: the republic of La Plata claims dominion over them, but they have never yet been subdued.

CHAPTER XXXII.

THE USE OF THE GLOBES.

DEFINITIONS. 1. The *Equator, Ecliptic, Tropics, Polar Circles, Parallels, and Meridians*, as described in the 1st and 2nd chapters of this book, are all laid down on a Terrestrial Globe. The *Equator* is used for finding the longitude of places, and is divided into 360 degrees: these degrees are numbered in two ways, one completely round the globe to 360, and the other half-way round on each side to 180. For the sake of convenience it is likewise graduated into hours and minutes; so that the longitude in time of any place may be readily obtained. The *Ecliptic* is divided into its 12 signs, and each sign into 30 degrees.

2. The Globe is hung in a brass ring called the *Brasen Meridian*, and runs upon a wire sunk into each pole: one side of this ring is divided into 90 degrees, and is hence termed the graduated side of the Meridian. One half of these degrees is numbered from the equator towards the poles, where they end at 90, their use being to show the Latitude of places: the other half is numbered from the poles to the equator, where they end at 90, their use being to elevate the pole above the horizon according to the latitude of any given place.

3. The *Brasen Meridian* is let into two notches made in a broad flat ring, called the *Wooden Horizon*, the upper surface of which divides the globe into two equal parts called the *Upper and Lower Hemispheres*: one notch is in the N. point of the horizon, and the other in the South. The graduated side of the *Brasen Meridian* faces the Eastern side of the horizon. The *Wooden Horizon* is divided into 3 concentric circles: the innermost of these contains several marks of the *Mariner's Compass*; the next has the signs, characters, and graduations, of the *Twelve Signs of the Zodiack*; and the outermost is a *Calendar* of the several months and days: by the two last the sun's place in the ecliptic may be readily found for every day in the year.

4. There is a small *Horary Circle* at each pole of the globe, divided into hours and minutes, and furnished with an *Index-hand* which goes over all the 24 hours, as the globe is turned round its axis. The motion of the *Terrestrial Globe* being from West to East (like that of the Earth itself), the hours increase in this direction: the motion of the *Celestial Globe* being from East to West (like the apparent motion of the heavens), the hours increase accordingly.

5. There is a thin slip of brass, called the *Quadrant of Altitude*, which is divided into 90 or more degrees answering exactly to so many degrees on the *Equator* or *Brasen Meridian*. It is occasionally fixed to the upper part of the *Brasen Meridian* by a nut and screw. The *Quadrant* turns round upon the nut, where the divisions frequently end.

6. The *Elevation of the Pole* at any place is the height of the Pole above the *Horizon* of that place measured on the *Meridian*. It is always the same number of degrees as the Latitude.

7. The *Hour of the Sun* at any place is its distance from Noon, or the *Meridian* of that place, measured on the *Horary Circle* at the *Equator* or *Poles*; it may also be reckoned from Midnight or the opposite meridian.

8. The *Declination* of the Sun, or any Star, or Planet, is its distance North-

ward or Southward from the Equator, measured on the Meridian in degrees. It is the same thing as Latitude on the Terrestrial Globe.

9. *The Right Ascension* of the Sun is its distance from that meridian which cuts the first point of the Sign Aries, and is measured Eastward on the Equator either in degrees or hours. It corresponds with Longitude on the Terrestrial Globe.

10. *The Latitude of a Star or Planet* is its distance Northward or Southward from the Ecliptic, reckoned in degrees. The Sun has no Latitude because he is always in the Ecliptic.

11. *The Longitude of the Sun or a Star* is its distance from the first point of Aries, and is measured on the Ecliptic Eastward either in degrees or hours. But with regard to the Sun or a Planet, this is usually called the *Place of the Sun or Planet* for any given day; i. e. its place in the Zodiac, or the Sign and degree in which it then appears to be.

12. *The Altitude of the Sun or a Star* is its distance from and above the Horizon, measured in degrees on the Quadrant of Altitude. The Sun's *Meridian Altitude* is when it is on the Meridian or due South, and has arrived at its greatest height above the Horizon for that day; it is then, likewise, said to *culminate*. The *Depression* of the Sun or a Star is its distance from and below the Horizon measured in the same way.

13. *The Azimuth of the Sun or a Star* is an arc of the horizon, comprehended between the meridian of a place and any vertical circle passing through the Sun or Star. It is reckoned Eastward in the morning, and Westward in the afternoon; and it is usually estimated from the North or from the South, according as it is nearer to the one or the other of these points.

14. *The Amplitude of the Sun or a Star* is an arc of the horizon, comprehended between the true East or West point and the centre of the heavenly body at its rising or setting. The Amplitude is therefore of two kinds, Eastern or *ortive*, and Western or *occiduous*: it is likewise called Northern or Southern, according as it falls in the Northern or Southern quarter of the Horizon.

THE TERRESTRIAL GLOBE.

PROBLEM I. *To find the Latitude and Longitude of any given place.*

Turn the Globe until the given place comes exactly under the graduated edge of the Brazen Meridian*, and the degree on the meridian (reckoning from the Equator) is the latitude required, which will be either North or South, according as the place is on the N. or S. side of the Equator. The Globe remaining in this position, the degree of the Equator which is under the Brazen Meridian is the Longitude sought, which will be either East or West, according as the place is E. or W. of London. Thus: Rome is in $41^{\circ} 54'$ North Latitude and $12^{\circ} 28'$

* *Note.* When the bringing of any place to the Brazen Meridian is mentioned, the graduated side is meant; and also that portion of the graduated side in which the degrees are reckoned from the Equator, excepting the contrary side should be specially mentioned.

Last Longitude: Lima is in $12^{\circ} 0'$ South Latitude and $7^{\circ} 0'$ West Longitude.

Examples. What are the Latitude and Longitude of London?—of Canada?—of Quebec?—of Rio Janeiro?—of Tombuctoo?—of the C. of Good Hope?—of Delhi?—of Washington?—of Moscow?—of Cape Horn?—of Siro?—of Mexico?—of Otaheite?—of Mecca?—of Edinburgh?—and of Botany Bay?

PROBLEM II. *The Longitude and Latitude of a place being given, to find that place on the globe.*

Look for the given Longitude on the Equator, and bring it to the graduated edge of the Brazen Meridian, on that side which is above the South point of the Horizon: then, under the given degree of Latitude will be the place required. Thus: the place whose Longitude is $39^{\circ} 0'$ East, and Latitude $41^{\circ} 0'$ North, is Constantinople: the place whose Longitude is $58^{\circ} 0'$ West, and Latitude $34^{\circ} 40'$ South, is Buenos Ayres.

Examples. What place is that whose Long. is $117^{\circ} 0'$ East, and Lat. $30^{\circ} 0'$ North?—What place is that whose Long. is $78^{\circ} 0'$ East, and Lat. $5^{\circ} 10'$ North?—What place is that whose Long. is $71^{\circ} 30'$ West, and Lat. $33^{\circ} 0'$ South?—What place is that whose Long. is $13^{\circ} 20'$ West, and $8^{\circ} 15'$ North?—What place is that whose Long. is $73^{\circ} 30'$ West, and Lat. $45^{\circ} 40'$ North?—What place is that whose Long. is $27^{\circ} 6'$ East, and Lat. $38^{\circ} 23'$ North?—What place is that whose Long. is $9^{\circ} 7'$ West, and Lat. $38^{\circ} 40'$ North?—What place is that whose Long. is $51^{\circ} 20'$ East, and Lat. $11^{\circ} 55'$ North?

PROBLEM III. *To find the difference of Latitude between any two given places.*

Bring each of the given places to the Brazen Meridian, and see what its latitude is. Subtract the less Latitude from the greater if both places are on the same side of the Equator, or add the two Latitudes together if they are on different sides of it, and you will have the difference required. Thus: the difference of Latitude between London and C. Verde is $36^{\circ} 40'$: the difference of Latitude between Dublin and C. Horn is $109^{\circ} 3'$.

Examples. What is the difference of Latitude between Morocco and St. Petersburg?—between Athens and Tombuctoo?—between London and the Cape of Good Hope?—between Madras and Rome?—between Philadelphia and Port Jackson?—between Calcutta and the North Cape?—between Ispahan and Sofala?—between Canton and Batavia?—between Brussels and Rio Janeiro?—between Quebec and New York?—between Alexandria and The Havannah?

PROBLEM IV. *To find the difference of Longitude between any two given places.*

Bring each place separately to the Brazen Meridian and note their Longitudes on the Equator, either in degrees or hours as the case may require. The difference between their longitudes, if it be less than 180° or 12 hours, is the difference required; but if this difference be more than 180° or 12 hours, subtract it from 360° or 24 hours, and the remainder will be the true difference required. Thus: the difference of Longitude between London and Canton is $113^{\circ} 6'$ or 7 hours 32 minutes: the difference of Longitude between Smyrna and Owhyhee is $177^{\circ} 24'$ or 11 hours 50 minutes.

Examples. What is the difference of Longitude between Lima and Lisbon?—between Dublin and Calcutta?—between Madrid and Peking?—between Edinburgh and Otaheite?—between Cape Comorin and C. Horn?—between Malacca and Washington?—between Rome and Cape Prince of Wales?—between Quebec and Grand Cairo?—between Athens and Mexico?—between Algiers and Jeddah?—between Nankin and the I. of Barbadoes?

PROBLEM V. *To find the distance between any two given places.*

Lay the graduated edge of the Quadrant of Altitude over both the places, and count the number of degrees intercepted between them on the Quadrant. Then multiply these degrees by 60, and the product will give the distance in geographical miles; or by $69\frac{1}{2}$, which will give the distance in English Statute Miles. Thus: the distance between Paris and Cape Comorin is 74° ; i. e. 4,440 geographical miles, or 5,115 English Statute miles.

Examples. What is the distance between London and Mecca?—between Lisbon and the C. of Good Hope?—between Naples and Delhi?—between Quebec and Lima?—between New York and Amsterdam?—between Smyrna and Canton?—between Hamburg and Madras?—between The Havannah and Owhyhee?—between the Cape of Good Hope and C. Horn?—between Jerusalem and London?

PROBLEM VI. *Any place being given, to find all those places which have the same Longitude or Latitude with it.*

Bring the given place to the graduated edge of the Brazen Meridian: then, all the places lying under that side of the Meridian, from pole to pole, have the same

longitude with the given place. Now turn the globe round its axis, and all the places passing under the same degree of the Meridian that the given place does, have the same latitude with that place. Thus: Caen, Poitiers, and Milan, are nearly in the same Longitude with London; and Sardinia, The Dardanelles, Samarcand, and Pekin, are nearly in the same Latitude with Madrid.

Examples. What places are in the same Longitude with Washington?—Calcutta?—with Naples?—with Alexandria?—with Lima?—What places are in the same Latitude with London?—with Edinburgh?—with Madras?—with Philadelphia?—with Grand Cairo?—with Owhyhee?

PROBLEM VII. To find the Antœci*, Pericœci†, and Antipodes‡, of any given place.

Bring the given place to the Brazen Meridian, and having found its Latitude keep the globe in that situation; count the same number of degrees of latitude from the Equator towards the contrary Pole, and where the reckoning ends is the situation of the Antœci of the given place. Those who live above the Equator have no Antœci.

- The globe remaining in the same position, set the hour-index to the upper XII. on the horary circle, and turn the globe till the index comes to the lower XII.; then, the place which lies under the Meridian, in the same latitude with the given place, is the situation of the Pericœci required. Those who live at the Poles have no Pericœci.

As the globe now stands (with the Index at the lower XII.) the Antipodes of the given place will be under the same point of the Brazen Meridian where its Antœci stood before. Every place upon the globe has its Antipodes.

Thus the Antœci of the Island of Newfoundland would dwell in the neighbourhood of the Falkland Isles; its Pericœci would be in the North Eastern part of Mongolia; and the situation of its Antipodes would be in the ocean about 15° to the South of the Southern coast of Australia.

Examples. Give the situations of the Antœci, Pericœci, and Antipodes, of London—also those of Canton—also those of New York—also those of the Cape of Good Hope—also those of St. Petersburg—also those of Sicily.

* The Antœci are those people who live on the same meridian, and in equal latitudes, on different sides of the equator. Being on the same meridian, they have the same hours; that is, when it is noon to the one, it is also noon to the other; and when it is midnight to the one, it is also midnight to the other, &c. Being on different sides of the equator, they have opposite seasons at the same time; the length of any day to the one is equal to the length of the night of that day to the other; and they have equal elevations of the different poles.

† The Pericœci are those people who live on the same parallel of latitude, but on opposite meridians: so that though their latitude be the same, their longitude differs 360 degrees. By being in the same latitude, they have equal elevations of the same pole, the same length of days or nights, and the same seasons. But being on opposite meridians, when it is noon to the one, it is midnight to the other.

‡ The Antipodes are those people who live diametrically opposite to one another upon the Globe, standing with feet towards feet, on opposite meridians and parallels, being on opposite sides of the equator, they have opposite seasons, winter to one when it is summer to the other; being equally distant from the equator, they have their contrary poles equally elevated above the horizon; being on opposite meridians, when it is noon to the one it must be midnight to the other; and as the Sun recedes from the one when he approaches to the other, the length of the day to one must be equal to the length of the night at the same time to the other.

PROBLEM VIII. *The hour of the day at any place being given, to find what time it then is at any other place.*

Bring the given place to the Brazen Meridian, and set the Index of the Horary Circle to the given Hour: then turn the Globe until the place where the time is required comes to the Brazen Meridian, and the Index will point out the time at that place. Thus: when it is ten o'clock at night at Calcutta it is about half past four in the afternoon at Lisbon.

Examples. When it is 5 in the morning at London, what time is it at New York?—at Pekin?—at Rome?—at Grand Cairo?—at C. Verde?—at Port Jackson.—When it is 7 o'clock in the Evening at Lima, what time is it at Madras?—at Owhyhee?—at Naples?—at Stockholm?—at Jeddah?—at Quebec?

PROBLEM IX. *The hour of the day at any place being given, to find all those places where it is noon or midnight at that time.*

Bring the given place to the Brazen Meridian, and set the Index to the given hour; then turn the Globe till the Index points to the Upper XII., and all the places that lie under the upper side of the Brazen Meridian have noon at that time. Now turn the globe till the Index points to the Lower XII., and to all the places that then lie under the upper side of the Brazen Meridian it will be midnight. Thus, when it is half past three in London it is noon at the I. of Newfoundland and in Eastern Guiana, whilst it is midnight in Corea and the I. of Gilolo.

Examples. When it is 5 in the morning at Edinburgh, where is it noon and midnight?—When it is 4 in the afternoon at Canton, where is it noon and midnight?—When it is 8 in the evening at Smyrna, where is it noon and midnight?—When it is 4 in the morning at Washington, where is it noon and midnight?—When it is 3 in the afternoon at Port Jackson where is it noon and midnight?

PROBLEM X. *The day of the month being given, to find the Sun's Declination and all those places of the earth where he will be vertical on that day.*

Look on the Wooden Horizon for the given day, and right against it you have the degree of the Sign in which the Sun is (i. e. his place) on that day at noon. Having found the same degree of that Sign upon the Ecliptic,

bring it to the meridian, and the degree which stands over it is the Sun's declination for that day. Now, turn the globe upon its axis and to all the places passing under this degree will the Sun will be vertical upon the given day. Thus: on the 30th of April the Sun was in $10\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ of Taurus, his declination was about 15° North, and he was vertical amongst other places to Goa, Cambodia, Manilla, and the Cape Verde Islands.

Examples. What is the Sun's declination, and where is he vertical, on the 10th of January?—on the 19th of October?—on the 1st of June?—on the 5th of May?—on the 1st of December?—on the 20th of August?—on the 10th of February?

PROBLEM XI. *To find the place where the Sun is vertical, at any hour of a given day.*

Having found the Sun's Declination for the given day by the last Problem, bring the given place to the Brazen Meridian, and set the Index to the given hour. Turn the globe till the Index points to XII. at noon, and to the place exactly under the Sun's Declination on the Brazen Meridian will the Sun be vertical at the given hour. Thus: on the 30th of April the Sun's declination was 15° North, and at 5 o'clock in the morning of that day in London he was vertical in Cambodia.

Examples. Where is the Sun vertical on the 1st of May, when it is 9 at night in Dublin?—Where on the 10th of November, when it is 6 in the morning at Moscow?—Where on the 3d of February, when it is 11 in the morning at Quebec?—Where on the 24th of April, when it is 4 in the afternoon at Morocco?

PROBLEM XII. *To rectify the globe for the Latitude, Zenith, and Sun's place.*

For the Latitude; Elevate the Pole above the horizon according to the latitude of the given place, *i. e.* as many degrees as the place is from the Equator. For the Zenith; Screw the Quadrant of Altitude on the given degree of Latitude, counting of course from the Equator. Bring the Sun's place on the Ecliptic to the Brazen Meridian, and set the hour-index to XII. at noon. Thus, to rectify the globe for the Latitude of London (which is $51\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ North), on the 30th of April: the Globe must be so placed that its North Pole shall be $51\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ above the North

side of the Horizon; the Quadrant must be screwed on $51\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ N. Latitude; the Sun's place ($10\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ of Taurus) must be brought to the Brazen Meridian; and the Hour-Index must be set to XII. at noon.

Examples. Rectify the globe for Hamburg on the 9th of May;—for Paris on the 6th of October;—for Smyrna on the 11th of February;—for Canton on the 12th of November;—for Dublin on the 19th of March;—for The Cape of Good Hope on the 7th of September;—for Amsterdam on the 20th of April.

PROBLEM XIII. *To find at what hour the Sun rises and sets any day in the year at a given place; and also the length of any given day or night at that place.*

Rectify the globe for the Latitude and Sun's place in the last Problem. Turn the Sun's place to the Eastern edge of the Wooden Horizon, and the Hour-Index will show the hour of rising; double this hour, and you will have the length of the night. Now turn the globe to the Western edge of the Horizon and the Hour-Index will show the time of setting; double this hour, and you will have the length of the day. Thus: on the 30th of April the Sun rises in London about half-past four, and sets about half-past seven; so that the length of the day then is 15 hours, and the length of the night 9 hours.

Examples. What time does the sun rise and set, and what is the length of day and night, on the 4th of November at Dublin?—at Canton?—at Amsterdam?—at Quebec?—at Buenos Ayres?—at Calcutta?—at the Cape of Good Hope?

PROBLEM XIV. *The day and hour at any place being given, to find all those places where the Sun is then rising, or setting, or on the meridian: consequently, all those places which are enlightened by the Sun at that time, and those which are in the dark.*

Find the place where the Sun is vertical at the given hour (by Problem XI.); bring it to the Meridian, and elevate the pole as many degrees above the Horizon as are equal to the Latitude of the place. Then, to all places just under the Western side of the Horizon the sun is rising; to those just under the Eastern edge of the Horizon he has just set; to those under the upper half of the Brazen Meridian it is noon; to those under

lower half it is midnight. All those places therefore which are above the Horizon are enlightened by the Sun: those which lie between the Horizon and a circle 18° above it have twilight: and the remainder of the globe in darkness. Thus: when it is 8 in the morning in London on the 30th of April, the Sun is rising at Helena and Florida; it is noon at Nova Zemlia and the Aral Sea; the Sun is setting in New Guinea; and it is midnight near Davis's Land in the Pacific Ocean.

Examples. To what places is the sun rising and setting, and where is it at noon and midnight, when at Canton it is 6 in the afternoon?—when at Madras it is 9 in the morning?—when at Madras it is 7 in the evening?—when at Buenos Ayres it is 10 in the morning?—when at Grand Cairo it is at midnight?—when at Jamaica it is 10 in the morning?

PROBLEM XV. *A place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find those two days of the year, on which the Sun is vertical there.*

Find the Latitude of the given place. Turn the globe round its axis, and observe the two degrees of the Ecliptic which pass exactly under this Latitude. Then find on the Wooden Horizon the two days of the year on which the Sun is in those degrees of the Ecliptic, and they are the days required. Thus: at C. Verde the Sun is vertical on the 28th of April and on the 12th of August.

Examples. Upon what days is the Sun vertical at Socotra?—at Batavia?—at Owhyhee?—at Mexico?—at Barbadoes?—at Lima?—at Port Royal in Jamaica?—and at Mozambique?

PROBLEM XVI. *To find all those places of the Frigid Zones where the Sun begins to shine constantly without setting, on any given day.*

Find the Sun's Declination by Problem X. Count as many degrees from the Pole as are equal to his declination, either North or South as the Declination may be, and mark that degree where the reckoning ends. Then, turning the globe round its axis, observe what places pass directly under that mark, for they are the places required*. Thus: on the 8th of May the Sun begins to shine continually at Icy Cape, Lancaster Sound, and Janeyen Island.

Examples. Where will the sun begin to shine constantly on 1st of October?—on the 10th of June?—on the 2nd of April?—on the 15th of November?—on the 29th of May?—on the 16th of October?—on the 20th of April?—on the 1st of May?

* On the equinoctial days, it will be remembered, the Sun enlightens the whole Earth from Pole to Pole.

PROBLEM XVII. *To find on what day of the year the Sun begins to shine constantly without setting, on any given place in the Frigid Zones, and how long he continues to do so: also upon what day continual night begins, and what is its duration.*

Rectify the globe for the Latitude of the given place. Bring the ascending part of the ecliptic (i. e. the part between the Equator and the Tropic) to the North point of the Wooden Horizon, and observe the degree of the ecliptic which it cuts: the day in the calendar on the Wooden Horizon corresponding with this degree, shows the day when the sun begins to shine without setting. Now bring the descending part of the Ecliptic (i. e. the part between the Tropic and the Equator) to the same North point of the horizon; observe the degree of the Ecliptic cut by it; and the day in the calendar corresponding with this degree is that in which continual day ends. Farther: the number of natural days between the two days above found, is the time that the sun keeps constantly above the horizon in summer; and amounts to the same as that during which in winter he never rises to the same place.—To find when the longest night begins and ends, proceed as above, but bring the points of the Ecliptic to the South instead of the North. Thus in Lancaster Sound continual day begins about April 7th and ends about August 25th: the length of the continual day being about 140 days.

Examples. What is the length of continual day, and when does it begin and end, at Melville Island?—at the Northernmost point of Spitzbergen?—at Disco Island?—at Latitude 85° North?—at the North Cape?—at Latitude 88° North?—at Jan Mayen Island?

PROBLEM XVIII. *To find in what Latitude the Sun either shines constantly without setting, or never rises, for any length of time less than $182\frac{1}{2}$ of our days and nights*.*

Find a point in the Ecliptic half as many degrees from the Tropic as there are days in the time given; and bring that point to the North side of the Brazen Meri-

* The reason of this limitation is, that $182\frac{1}{2}$ of our days and nights make half a year, which is the longest time that the sun shines without setting, or that he is totally absent, even at the poles of the Earth.

on which the degrees are numbered from the pole towards the Equator. Keep the globe from turning on its axis, and slide the meridian up or down, until the said point of the Ecliptic comes to the North point of the Wooden Horizon; and then the elevation of the pole will be equal to the Latitude required. Thus: the place where the longest day is 100 days long is in Latitude 75° .

Where does the Sun continue shining without setting for 36 days?—for 100 days?—for 110 days?—for 20 days?—for 150 days?—for 8 days?

PROBLEM XIX. *To find the length of the longest day at any given place.*

Find the Latitude of the place, and elevate the pole accordingly. If it be in the Northern Hemisphere, bring the beginning of Cancer to the Brazen Meridian, and set the hour-index to XII. at noon: if it be in the Southern Hemisphere, do likewise, bringing the beginning of Capricorn to the Meridian. Turn the globe Westward until the beginning of the Sign comes to the Horizon: double the time shown by the Hour-Index (which is that of sun-) and you will have the length of the longest day.

Examples. What is the length of the longest day at London?—at Paris?—at Pekin?—at Jerusalem?—at Edinburgh?—at Gibraltar?—at Stockholm?—at Washington?—at Quebec?—at the Cape of Good Hope?—at St Jackson?—at Hobart Town?—at Buenos Ayres.

PROBLEM XX. *The Latitude and the day of the month being given, to find the hour of the day when the sun shines.*

Set the Wooden Horizon truly level, and the Brazen Meridian due North and South by the Mariner's Compass; and rectify the Globe. Then stick a small sewing-needle into the Sun's place in the Ecliptic, exactly perpendicular to that part of the globe. Turn the globe on its axis until the needle comes to the Brazen Meridian, and set the Hour-Index to XII. at noon. Now turn the globe again on its axis, until the needle points exactly towards the Sun (which is known by its casting no shadow on the globe), and the Index will show the hour of the day very nearly.

PROBLEM XXI. *The Latitude of any place and the day of the month being given; to find when the morning-twilight begins, and the evening-twilight ends, at any place*.*

Rectify the globe, and bring the Sun's place in the Ecliptic to the Eastern side of the Horizon. Mark the opposite point of the Ecliptic in the Western side of the Horizon: lay the Quadrant of Altitude over the said point, and turn the globe Eastward (keeping the Quadrant at the chalk-mark) until it is just 18° high on the Quadrant, when the Index will point out the time that the morning-twilight begins; for the Sun's place will then be 18° below the Eastern side of the Horizon.—To find the time when the evening-twilight ends, bring the Sun's place to the Western side of the Horizon, and the point opposite to it, which was marked with the chalk will be rising in the East. Then put the Quadrant over that point, and turn the globe Westward until the said point be 18° above the Horizon on the Quadrant, and the Index will show the time when the evening-twilight ends; the Sun's place being then 18° below the Western side of the Horizon.

Examples. When does the twilight begin and end, on the 29th of May at London?—at Quebec?—at Petersburg?—at Pekin?—at Smyrna?—When does it begin and end at the same places on the 6th of February?—on the 9th of November?—on the 10th of October?

PROBLEM XXII. *To find the Sun's Meridian-Altitude on any day at a given place.*

Rectify the globe for the Latitude of the place. Find the Sun's place in the Ecliptic, and bring it to the Brazen Meridian. Count the number of degrees on the Meridian, between the Sun's place and the Horizon, and you will have the Altitude required.

Examples. What is the Meridian-Altitude of the Sun at London on the 1st of December?—on the 22nd of June?—on the 1st of October?—on the 21st of December?—What is his Meridian-Altitude on the 20th of June at Canton?—at Port Jackson?—at Calcutta?—at Edinburgh?—at The North Cape?—at the Cape of Good Hope?

PROBLEM XXIII. *The Latitude, hour of the day, and the Sun's place, being given, to find the Sun's Altitude and Azimuth.*

Rectify the globe for the Latitude, Zenith, and Sun's place. Turn the globe until the Index points to the given hour. Then, lay the Quadrant of Altitude over the Sun's place in the Ecliptic, and the degree of the Quadrant cut by the Sun's place is his altitude at that time above the horizon: and the degree on the Wooden

* This Problem is often limited. For when the Sun does not go 18° below the Horizon (which is the point where twilight begins and ends) the twilight continues the whole night; and for several nights together in summer between 40° and $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ of Latitude, and the nearer to $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, the greater is the number of these nights.

Horizon cut by the Quadrant, is the Sun's Azimuth, reckoned from the South.

Examples. Give the Sun's Altitude and Azimuth at London on the 21st day at 9 in the morning.—on the 21st of June at the same hour.—on the 1st of December at the same hour.—Give the Sun's Altitude and Azimuth at Smyrna on the 5th of April at 7 in the morning—at 3 in the afternoon.—Edinburgh on the 4th of October at 8 in the morning.

PROBLEM XXIV.—*The Latitude, Sun's place, and his Altitude, being given, to find the hour of the day and the Sun's Azimuth.*

Lectify the globe. Bring the Sun's place to the given height upon the Quadrant of Altitude, on the Eastern side of the Wooden Horizon if the time be in the forenoon, or on the Western side if the time be in the afternoon. The Index will now show the hour of the day; and the number of degrees the Horizon intercepted between the Quadrant of Altitude and the South it will be the Sun's Azimuth at that time.

Examples. Give the hour of the day and the Sun's Azimuth at London, on 9th of March, when his altitude is 52° .—At Jerusalem on the 8th of May, when his altitude is 68° .—At Canton on the 20th of August when Altitude is 39° .—At the Cape of Good Hope on the 1st of November when his Altitude is 27° .

PROBLEM XXV. *The Latitude of a place, not exceeding $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, and the day of the month, being given, to find the Sun's Amplitude.*

Lectify the globe. Bring the Sun's place to the Eastern side of the Horizon; and the point of the compass on the Wooden Horizon, which stands against the Sun's place is his amplitude at rising. Now turn the globe backward, until the Sun's place comes to the Western side of the Horizon, it will cut the point of his Amplitude at setting.—The Amplitude may likewise counted in degrees: viz. at sun-rise from the East point of the Horizon to that point where the Sun's place cuts it; and at sun-set, from West point of the Horizon to that point where the Sun's place cuts it in.

Examples. What is the Sun's Amplitude at rising and setting on the 1st of November in Lat. 60° North?—in Lat. 45° North?—in Lat. 30° North?—in Lat. 48° South?—What is his Amplitude at rising and setting in Lat. $51\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ North, on the 20th of June?—on the 21st of December?—on the 25th of March?

PROBLEM XXVI. *The day and hour of a Lunar Eclipse being given, to find all those places of the Earth where it will be visible.*

Find the place to which the Sun is vertical at the given hour by Problem I. Elevate the pole according to the Latitude of that place, and bring the place to the brazen Meridian. Now, as the Sun will be visible to all those parts of the globe which are above the Horizon, the Moon will be visible to those parts which are below the Horizon at the time of her greatest oblation.

Examples. To what places was the Eclipse of the Moon visible, which took place at 6 in the morning on the 10th of July?—at 4 in the afternoon the 1st of November?—at 10 at night on the 1st of March?—at 2 in the morning on the 12th of August?

THE CELESTIAL GLOBE.

DEFINITIONS. 1. The Celestial Globe is an artificial delineation of the heavens. In the use of it we are to suppose that its motion represents the apparent diurnal motion of the heavens from East to West; and that we

are in its centre; because the stars would then appear, as they actually do, in the concave surface of the heavens.

2. The Equator, Ecliptic, Tropics, Polar Circles, Brazen Meridian, and Wooden Horizon, are exactly alike on both globes; the method of rectifying the two globes is exactly the same: and all the foregoing problems concerning the Sun are solved the same way by both Globes.

3. The *Equinoctial Colure* is that great circle which passes through the Equinoctial points at the beginning of Aries and Libra, and through the Poles of the world. The *Solstitial Colure* is that great circle which passes through the beginning of Cancer and Capricorn, as well as through the Poles of the World, and the Poles of the Ecliptic.

4. The *Latitudes* of the Moon, Stars, Planets, and Comets, are reckoned North and South from the Ecliptic, and not from the Equator. Hence it follows that, as the greatest Latitudes on the Earth are at the North and South poles of the earth, so, the greatest latitudes of the heavens are at the North and South poles of the Ecliptic.

5. The *Longitudes* of the heavenly bodies are reckoned from the Equinoctial Colure at the first point of Aries, Eastward quite round the globe.

6. Those Stars which lie between the Equinoctial and the Northern half of the Ecliptic have North Declination and South Latitude; those which lie between the Equinoctial and the Southern half of the Ecliptic have South Declination and North Latitude; and all those which lie between the Tropics and the Poles have their Declinations and Latitudes of the same denomination.

7. The point of the Equinoctial, reckoned from the beginning of Aries, that comes to the meridian with a Heavenly Body, is called its *Right Ascension*; and may be reckoned either in time or degrees.

8. The distance of a Heavenly Body, in degrees, from the Equinoctial, towards the North or South Pole, is its *Declination*, which is North or South accordingly.

PROBLEM XXVII. *To find the Right Ascension and Declination of the Sun or any Fixed Star.*

Bring the Sun's place in the Ecliptic to the Brazen Meridian. Then that degree in the Equinoctial which is cut by the Meridian, is the Sun's *Right Ascension*; and that degree of the Meridian which is over the Sun's place is his *Declination*. Bring any Fixed Star to the Meridian, and its *Right Ascension* will be cut by the Meridian in the Equinoctial; and the degree of the Meridian that stands over it is its *Declination*.

Examples. Give the *Right Ascension* and *Declination* of the Sun on the 1st of May.—on the 1st of December.—on the 20th of June.—on the 29th of September.—Give the *Right Ascension* and *Declination* of the Pole Star.—of Arcturus.—of α Lyra.—of β Leonis.—of β Hydra.—of Sirius.—of Fomalhaut.—of ϵ Ceti.—of γ Eridani.—of Procyon.

PROBLEM XXVIII. *To find the Latitude and Longitude of any Star.*

Place the centre of the Quadrant of Altitude on the Pole of the Ecliptic (either North or South, as the case may be), and its graduated edge on the Star. Then, the number of degrees on the Quadrant between the Ecliptic and the Star, is its *Latitude*, North or South as the case may be; and the degree of the Ecliptic cut by the Quadrant is the Star's *Longitude*, reckoned according to the Sign in which the Quadrant then is.

Examples. Give the *Latitude* and *Longitude* of Cor Caroli.—of ϵ Hydra.—of Arcturus.—of Rigel.—of Capella.—of β Ceti.—of α Lyra.—of α Cygni.—of β Serpentis.—of γ Leonis.—of Regulus.—of Procyon.—of β Leporis.—of Canopus.

PROBLEM XXIX. *To represent the face of the Heavens, as seen from any given place of the Earth, at any hour of the night.*

Rectify the globe for the Latitude, Zenith, and Sun's place: set the globe North and South; and turn it about until the Index points to the given hour. Then, the upper hemisphere of the globe will represent the visible half of the heavens at that time; and as every star on the globe points towards the same star in the Heavens, the several constellations may be easily known and pointed to. All those stars which are in the Eastern side of the Horizon are then rising, and all in the Western are setting. All those stars which are under the upper part of the Brazen Meridian, between the South point of the Horizon and the North Pole, are at their greatest altitude, if the Latitude be North: but if the Latitude be South, those stars which lie under the upper part of the Meridian, between the North point of the Horizon and the South Pole, are at their greatest altitude.

Examples. Let the face of the heavens be represented as seen from London at 2 o'clock in the morning, on the 28th of December.—on the 29th of March.—on the 2nd of July.—on the 10th of September.—As seen from Senos Ayres on the 1st of August at 12 at night.—As seen from Canton on the 10th of May at 3 in the morning.—As seen from The Cape of Good Hope on the 1st of November at one in the morning.

PROBLEM XXX. *The Latitude of the place, and day of the month, being given, to find the time when any Heavenly body will rise, culminate, or set; as also how many hours it is above the horizon.*

Having rectified the globe, turn it about until the given Star comes to the eastern edge of the Horizon, and the Index will show the time of the Star's rising; then turn the globe Westward till the Star comes to the Brazen Meridian, when the Index will show the time of the Star's culminating at the given place; lastly, turn the globe until the Star comes to the Western edge of the Horizon, and the Index will show the time of the Star's setting*. The time elapsed from the hour of its rising to that of its setting, is the time the Star is above the Horizon.

Examples. Give the hour of the rising, setting, and culminating, of Procyon on the 10th of August.—of Aldebaran on the 1st of May.—of α Lyrae on the 1st of January.—of Rigel on the 20th of November.—of Sirius on the 1st of October.—of Fomalhaut on the 6th of June.—of Capella on the 9th of February.—of γ Eridani on the 1st of June.

PROBLEM XXXI. *To find at what time of the year a given Star will be upon the Meridian, at a given hour of the night.*

Bring the given Star to the upper semicircle of the Brazen Meridian, and set the Index to the given hour. Then, turn the globe until the Index points to XII. at noon, and the upper semicircle of the Meridian will then cut the sun's place answering to the day of the year required.

Examples. When will Rigel be upon the Meridian of London at 5 in the morning?—at 9 in the evening?—at 11 at night?—When will Arcturus be upon the Meridian of London at 2 in the morning?—at 6 in the evening?—at 10 at night?—When will Sirius be upon the meridian of the Cape of Good Hope at 4 in the morning?—at 1 in the morning?—at 5 in the afternoon?—When will α Crucis be upon the Meridian of Port Jackson at midnight?

* In Northern Latitudes those stars which are less distant from the North Pole than the quantity of its elevation above the North point of the Horizon, never set; those which are less distant from the South Pole than the number of degrees by which it is depressed below the Horizon, never rise: and *vice versa* in Southern Latitudes.

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A P R A X I S
ON THE
GRAMMAR
OF
MODERN GEOGRAPHY
AND
ASTRONOMY,
COMPILED FOR THE USE OF
KING'S COLLEGE SCHOOL,
By **AARON ARROWSMITH,**
HYDROGRAPHER TO THE KING,
AND MEMBER OF THE ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.



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P R E F A C E.

THE arrangement of the Chapters in the following axis corresponds with that of the " Grammar of Modern Geography " to which it refers ; and the order the Questions in the one follows that of the account people, countries, and places, given in the other.

Such Questions as have Asterisks prefixed to them, refer to those general matters which in the Grammar are printed with larger type. These alone may be at first given to the Learner, either for oral or written answers ; it, as the Sections in the Grammar and the Questions themselves are both numbered, any others may be readily omitted.

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P R A X I S.

CHAPTER I.

SYSTEM OF THE UNIVERSE.

WHAT is Astronomy? 2.* What is meant by the term Systems of verse? 3.* In what way is the word Phænomena used? 4.* How systems of the Universe are there? 5.* Name them. 6.* Whence is Planetary System derived its name? 7.* What is a Planet? What is the shape of the heavenly bodies? 8.* Define the term Disc and Diameter. 11.* And Hemisphere. 12. What people appear to be first acquainted with Astronomy? 13. To whom did they communicate their knowledge? 14. Give some account of the opinions of 15. And those of Pythagoras. 16. Describe the Ptolemaic System. 17. Also the Copernican System. 18. Also the Tychonic System, what was the Semi-Tychonic System? 20.* What great men taught the Solar System? 21.* Upon what principle does it rest? 22.* What is meant by the Centripetal and Centrifugal forces? 23.* What is the arrangement of the Solar System? 24.* Mention the planets in their order with respect to the Sun. 25. What is an Orbit? 26. What is the figure of Planetary Orbits? 27. Why are some planets called Inferior and Superior, and which are they? 28.* What is meant by Primary and Secondary Planets? 29.* What is meant by the terms Moons and Satellites? 30.* How many Satellites have the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Sun? 31. Mention what you know about the Sun. 32. About Mercury. 33. About Venus. 34. About Mars. 35. What can you state of Vesta, Ceres, Pallas, and Juno? 36. What about Jupiter? 37. about Saturn? 38. What about the Georgian? 39. Mention some particulars about Comets.

What is meant by the term Fixed Stars? 41.* What are they considered to be. 42.* What notion can you form of their distance? 43. What is understood by the term Magnitudes with respect to Stars? 44. What are the principal Stars? 45.* What are Double Stars? 46.* What are the Nebulae supposed to be? 47.* Give some account of the Milky Way. 48.* What is Sir Wm. Herschel's theory concerning it? 49.* How and when were the heavens first partitioned out for the sake of description? 50.* What are considered twelve of them more important than the others? 51.* Give the origin and meaning of the term Signs. 52.* Also of that of Zodiac. Name the twelve Signs of the Zodiac. 54.* What is the Ecliptic?

55.* Whence did it obtain its name? 56. What account can you give of the names applied by the Egyptians to the Zodiacal constellations? 57. What is meant by Sabaism? 58. Relate some particulars concerning its origin and history.

59.* Describe the figure of the Earth. 60.* What gives it this figure? 61.* What is meant by the Axis of the Earth? 62.* And by its Poles? 63.* How many Poles are there, and how are they distinguished? 64.* What causes day and night? 65.* What can you mention about the apparent motion of the heavenly bodies? 66. How would you demonstrate the roundness of the Earth's figure? 67. Who are the Antipodes? 68. Give some account of them. 69. How does Gravitation affect them? 70. Demonstrate the motion of the Earth as producing Morning, Noon, Evening, and Midnight. 71. Define the term Horizon. 72. Also the terms Zenith and Nadir. 73.* What causes the Seasons? 74.* What causes the different lengths of day and night? 75. As the Sun does not move round the Earth, how is it that we say he moves from one constellation to another? 76.* Give the origin and definition of the term Parallels. 77.* What is the Equator? 78.* What other name has it, and why is it so called? 79.* What are the Equinoctial Points? 80.* How many Tropics are there? 81.* Which be they? 82.* Whereabouts over the Earth do they seem to pass? 83.* What is the origin of the name Tropic? 84.* And why are they named after the constellations Cancer and Capricorn? 85.* What are the Solstices and Solstitial points? 86.* Why are they so called. 87.* Give some account of the Polar Circles. 88. To what circles in the heavens do they answer? 89. Where will the Sun be vertical? 90. Demonstrate the Phenomenon of the Vernal Equinox. 91. Of the Summer Solstice? 92. Of the Autumnal Equinox. 93. Of the Winter Solstice. 94. How do you account for the different distances of the Sun from the Earth? 95. And for the apparent difference in its magnitude? 96. And also for the difference in its apparent motion? 97. What is meant by the Earth's Aphelium and Perihelium? 98. When is the Sun nearest to us? 99. What is the reason, then, that it is colder in Winter than in Summer?

100.* Whence does the Moon derive her light? 101.* What is meant by the Moon's Synod and Synodical Month? 102.* What is understood by her Phases? 103.* Whence do they arise? 104. Demonstrate the phenomenon of Full Moon. 105. Of the Gibbous Moon. 106. Of the Half-Moon. 107. Of the Horned Moon. 108. Of the Change of the Moon. 109. Which part of the Moon is towards the Sun? 110. Give some account of the Moon's faint light. 111. What is understood by the Moon's Apogee and Perigee? 112.* What causes an Eclipse of the Sun? 113.* When only can it happen? 114.* What causes an Eclipse of the Moon? 115.* When only can it happen? 116. What is meant by the Nodes of the Moon? 117. Give some account of them? 118. Why is there not an Eclipse of the Sun at every change of the Moon? 119. What is the figure of the Shadows cast by the Earth and Moon? 120. To what is this owing? 121. How do you prove this? 122. Does the Earth's Shadow ever darken the whole of the Moon? 123. How is this caused? 124. Can the Earth darken Mars when it passes between it and the Sun? 125. What does this prove? 126. When is an Eclipse of the Moon greatest or longest, and why? 127. Demonstrate this. 128. What is a Total Eclipse of the Moon? 129. What is a Partial Eclipse? 130. What is a central Eclipse? 131. Demonstrate the Phenomenon of a Central Eclipse of the Moon. 132. Of a Total Eclipse of the Moon. 133. Of a Partial Eclipse of the Moon. 134. Which side of the Earth's Shadow does the Moon enter? 135. What is un-

ed by the term Digits? 136. Is an Eclipse of the Sun ever Total? Is it dark then? 138. Does this darkness last long, and why? 139. Is the Moon ever obscure the whole Earth at the same time? 140. Why? 141. Explain the cause of this. 142. What is an Annular Eclipse? What occasions it? 144. Demonstrate this phenomenon.

* What causes the tides? 146.* When does the Sea flow? 147.* Does it ebb? 148.* Which are Spring-tides? 149.* Which are Neap-tides? 150. What can you mention about the highest and lowest

151. How often does the sea ebb and flow during the day? 152. What is the daily motion of the tide? 153. What difference is there between the length of a solar and lunar day? 154. What effect does this produce on the tides? 155. In what way does the action of the Sun assist the Moon in causing the tides? 156. Demonstrate their united action on the Spring-tides. 157. On the Neap-tides. 158. Do the Spring and Neap-tides take place exactly at the changes and quadratures of the Moon? 159. Why not? 160. Mention the heights to which the tides rise at some places and generally.

CHAPTER II.

THE WORLD.

Define the term Geography. 2.* Give its origin. 3. Give the mean origin of the word Hydrography. 4. Also of Cosmography. 5. Of Chorography. 6. Also of Topography. 7.* How is the situation of places upon the Earth determined? 8.* How is every circle divided? How comes this. 10.* What is meant by Degrees? 11.* How are Degrees subdivided? 12.* What is Latitude? 13.* How is it reckoned? What is the greatest Latitude a place can have? 15.* What is meant by a Parallel? 16.* What is the Latitude of places situated on the Equator? 17.* What is Longitude? 18.* How is it measured? 19.* What is understood by the First Meridian? 20.* Where did the Ancients place the First Meridian? 21.* Where do the Moderns place it? 22.* What is the origin of the term Meridian? 23.* What is the greatest Longitude a place can properly have? 24.* What is the Longitude of those places which lie under the First Meridian? 25. What is the origin of the terms Latitude and Longitude? Is the Longitude ever reckoned completely round the globe? 27. How is this remedied?

* How do you define the Meridian and Parallel of a place? 29.* Are the Meridian lines of the globe equally long, and why? 30.* Are all the Parallels equally long, and why not? 31.* Are there the same number of Miles in every Meridian and Parallel? 32.* Why so? 33.* Are there the same number of miles in every Meridian and Parallel? 34.* Why not? How many miles does a degree of Latitude always contain? 36.* How many miles does a degree of Longitude contain? 37.* Where are the degrees of Longitude greatest and least? 38.* How are the degrees of Latitude and Longitude marked on a map? 39.* How do you tell on a map whether places are in North or South Latitude? 40.* And how whether they are in East or West Longitude. 41. Give the Latitude and Longitude of the places in Section Ten. 42. How is the distance obtained between two places on the same Meridian? 43. And how between two places on the same parallel? 44. And how when on different parallels and meridians? How many Geographical Miles are there in a degree of Latitude? 46. How many British Statute Miles are there in a degree of Longitude? 47.* What is meant by Longitude

Continent of Europe.

in time? 48.* Give some examples of it. 49. Solve the questions in Section Seventeen.

50.* Name the Zones into which the Earth is divided. 51.* Give the boundaries of each. 52. What is meant by a Climate? 53. How many Climates are reckoned upon the Earth? 54.* Of what parts is the Terrestrial globe composed? 55.* Define a Continent: 56.* An Island: 57.* A Peninsula or Chersonese: 58.* An Isthmus: 59.* A Cape or Point: 60.* A Hill or Mountain: 61.* A Chain of mountains: 62.* A Volcano: 63.* A Valley and Pass: 64.* A River: 65.* What is meant by its Springs and Mouth? 66.* By its right and left banks? 67.* By ascending and descending a river? 68.* Define a Lake. 69.* Morasses or Marshes. 70.* What is the Ocean? 71.* What is a Sea? 72.* What is a Gulf or Bay? 73.* What is a Strait? 74.* How have modern Geographers divided the globe? 75.* What is meant by a Quarter of the World? 76.* Why would not the term Continent do instead of Quarter? 77.* Are the Quarters of the World equal? 78.* What is understood by the Old and New World? 79. What proportion does the land bear to the water of the globe? 80. What notion can you give of the superficial surface of the globe, and of the land? 81. And of its population.

82.* Where is the Atlantic Ocean? 83.* Where is the Indian Ocean? 84.* Where is the Pacific Ocean, and what other name has it? 85.* Where is Polynesia? 86.* Where is the Southern Ocean? 87.* Where are the Frozen Oceans, and what other names have they? 88.* Mention the principal chains of mountains in Europe: 89.* In Asia: 90.* In Africa: 91.* In America. 92.* Mention the chief rivers of Europe: 93.* Of Asia: 94.* Of Africa: 95.* Of America. 96.* Name the chief Capes of Europe: 97.* Of Asia: 98.* Of Africa: 99.* Of America. 100.* Mention some of the largest Islands in the world.

CHAPTER III.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

1.* How is Europe bounded? 2.* Describe the range of the Pyrenean Mountains. 3.* Also the Alps and Balkan. 4.* Also the Apennines. 5.* Also the Pindus. 6.* Where are the Hercynian Mts., and by what names are they now usually distinguished? 7.* In what way are they connected with the Carpathian Mts. and Bastarnic Alps? 8.* Describe the great mountain-range of Scandinavia? 9.* Give some account of the Mts. 10.* What States can you name in the Western part of Europe? 11.* What States in its Central part? 12.* What States in its Eastern part? 13.* And what States in its Northern part? 14. Give the situation and chief cities of Portugal. 15. Also of Spain. 16. What do you remember about Gibraltar? 17. Repeat what you know about the situation and chief cities of France. 18. Also of Switzerland. 19. Also of Belgium and Holland. 20. Also of Great Britain and Ireland. 21. What can you state about Guernsey, Jersey, and Alderney. 22. How is Germany at present divided? 23. Give some account of Denmark and its metropolis. 24. What States lie immediately South of it? 25. Mention what you know about the kingdom of Russia. 26. And of the kingdom of Saxony. 27. And of the Austrian Empire. 28. What States lie between the Austrian Empire and the R. Rhine? 29. What do you know about the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom? 30. What about the kingdom of Sardinia? 31. Give the situation and chief cities of Parma, Modena, Lucca, and

Great Britain and Ireland.

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32. And of the Papal States. 33. And of the kingdom of Naples. 34. Describe the Maltese Islands. 35. Give some account of Turkey. 36. And of Greece. 37. Also of the Ionian Islands. 38. Give the situated chief cities of European Russia. 39. And of the kingdom of Prussia. 40. Give the estimated population of Europe. 41. Also its total extent. 42. Copy out the table in Section Twelve.

Mention the principal rivers of Spain. 41.* Also of France. 45.* Great Britain and Ireland. 46.* Also of Germany. 47.* Also of Italy. 48.* Describe the course of the R. Danube. 49.* What tributaries has it? 50.* What rivers can you name in the Southern part of Russia? 51.* And what rivers in its Northern part? 52.* Give some account of the North Sea. 53.* Of the North Sea. 54.* Of the Baltic and its arms. 55.* Of the Bay of Biscay. 56.* Of the Gulfs of Lyons and Genoa. 57.* Of the Adriatic Sea. 58.* Of the Archipelago. 59.* Of the Sea of Marmora. 60.* Of the Black Sea. 61.* Of the Sea of Azov. 62.* By what strait is the channel between Denmark and Sweden known? 63.* Describe the English Channel. 64.* Where is the St. of Dover? 65.* Where is the St. George's Channel. 66.* Where is the St. of Gibraltar? 67.* What do you know about the St. of Messina? 68.* What about the St. of Constantinople? 69.* What about the Dardanelles? 70.* What about the St. of Enikale? 71.* What about the St. of Enikale? 72.* Describe the situations of the North Cape, the Naaze, and the Skaw. 73.* Of the Lizard Point. 74.* Of C. St. Matthew, C. Ortegá, and C. Terra. 75.* Of C. St. Vincent and Gibraltar. 76.* Of C. Spartán and C. Matapan.

CHAPTER IV.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

What islands are called the British Islands? 2.* What countries do Great Britain include? 3.* And how is it bounded? 4.* Give the breadth of Great Britain. 5.* And its greatest length. 6.* How is it situated with respect to Great Britain? 7.* How far apart are the nearest points of the two Islands? 8.* Mention some particulars about the breadth. 9.* Where are the Grampian Mts.? 10.* Mention their highest points. 11.* In what way do they divide Scotland? 12.* What English hills do they join? 13.* What do you remember about the Chase? 14.* What high points can you mention in the Northern part of England? 15.* What do you know about the Cotswold Hills? 16.* Name some of the highest points in the Southern part of England. 17.* And in Wales. 18. Copy the tables in Sections Nine and Ten. Describe the highest mountains of Ireland. 20.* Also the Slieve Donard Mts. 21.* And the Wicklow Mts. 22.* Give some account of the Mourne Mts. 23.* And of the Giant's Causeway. 24.* Where is the Mts. of Croagh-Patrick and Nephin? 25. Copy the table in Section Eleven.

26.* Describe the course of the R. Thames. 27.* Name its principal tributaries. 28.* Give some account of the R. Severn. 29. What can you say about its tributary the Avon? 30. Are there many English rivers? 31. Avon, and how does this happen? 31. Give the course of the R. Great Ouse. 32. And of the R. Stour. 33. Also of the R. Anton. 34. Where are the rivers Exe and Tamar? 35.* Describe the course of the R. Trent. 36.* What can you state about the R. Humber? 37.* And

about the R. Trent? 38.* What about the R. Ouse of Yorkshire, and its tributaries? 39.* Give some account of the rivers Tees and Wear. 40.* Also of the Tyne, the Alne, and the Tweed. 41. What rivers can you mention on the W. coast of England? 42. And on the coast of Wales. 43. Copy the table in Section Twenty. 44.* Mention the chief rivers in the Eastern part of Scotland. 45.* What do you know about Loch Ness and the Murray-Firth? 46.* What about the Caledonian Canal? 47.* Give some account of the R. Clyde. 48.* Also of the rivers Ayr, Dee, and Nith. 49.* Name the chief lakes of Scotland. 50.* What has rendered Loch Leven interesting? 51. Copy the table in Section Twenty-four.

52.* Describe the course of the R. Shannon. 53.* Mention what you know about the rivers Blackwater and Lee. 54.* Also about the Barrow and Ovoca. 55.* Describe the courses of the Liffey and Boyne. 56.* What has rendered the latter river famous? 57.* Where is the R. Ban? 58.* And the Derg? 59. Copy the table in Section Twenty-eight. 60. Describe L. Neagh. 61. And L. Earne. 62. And the L. of Killarney. 63. What other lakes can you name in Ireland? 64. Give some account of the Bogs of Ireland. 65.* Mention the chief gulfs on the Eastern coast of Great Britain. 66.* Also those on the Western coast of Scotland. 67.* Where are Solway Firth and Morecambe Bay? 68.* What gulfs can you mention on the coast of Wales? 69.* And what gulfs towards the S. of England? 70.* Mention the chief bays on the E. coast of Ireland. 71.* On its S. coast. 72.* On its W. coast. 73.* On its N. coast. 74.* Describe the chief Straits of the British Islands. 75.* Mention the chief Capes of Great Britain on the North. 76.* On the East. 77.* On the South. 78.* On the West. 79.* Name the chief promontories of Ireland.

80.* What is the Established form of Religion in England? 81.* Mention some particulars concerning it. 82.* Are other forms tolerated? 83. How is the Church of England governed? 84. Name the Bishoprics in the See of Canterbury. 85. And those in the See of York. 86. What other orders of the Clergy are there in England? 87. How many Parishes are there in England and Wales? 88.* What is the established form of religion in Scotland? 89.* Give some account of its nature. 90.* In what way is it governed? 91. Whence did Calvinism derive its name? 92. What are its distinguishing tenets? 93. Who are the Hugonots? 94. What is the established form of religion in Ireland? 95. In what way is it governed? 96. Mention the names of the four Archbishoprics. 97. Name the Bishoprics in the See of Armagh. 98. Also those in the See of Dublin. 99. Also those in the See of Cashell. 100. Also those in the See of Tuam. 101.* What is the government of Great Britain? 102.* Mention some particulars about the power of the King. 103. Of what parts does the Parliament consist? 104. Give some account of the House of Lords. 105. Of the House of Commons. 106. Of the authority and duration of a Parliament. 107.* What is the form of government in Scotland? 108.* And in Ireland?

109.* How are England and Wales bounded? 110.* Give their area and population. 111.* How is England divided? 112.* How many Counties are there in England? 113.* How is England represented in Parliament? 114.* How many Circuits are there in England? 115.* Name them. 116.* Name the Circuits of Wales. 117. Copy the table in Section Fifty-one. 118. Copy the table in Section Fifty-two. 119. Copy the table in Section Fifty-three. 120.* Name the metropolis of the British Empire. 121.* How is it situated? 122.* Considered as an aggregate, what places does it include? 123.* State its population. 124.* What other particulars can you mention concerning it? 125. How many Universities are there in Eng-

Kingdom of France:

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and where are they? 126. Name the chief sea-ports of England. What places in England are most celebrated for their manufactures? Copy out from the table in Section Fifty-eight, the population of all places that exceeds twenty thousand souls. 127.* What other name has Scotland. 130.* How is it bounded? 131.* large is it, and how many square miles does it contain? 132.* State its length and breadth. 133.* When was its kingdom united to that of England? 134. How are the Scotch commonly divided? 135. Give some account of the Highlanders. 136.* Into how many shires is Scotland divided? 137.* Name those in the North. 138.* Those in the Centre. 139.* Those in the South. 140.* How is Scotland represented in Parliament? 141. Copy the table in Section Sixty-two. 142.* Name the capital of Scotland. 143.* How is it situated? 144.* Mention what you know about it. 145.* What has rendered Scone and Abernethy remarkable? 146. Name the Scotch Universities. 147. What towns in Scotland are most famous for their manufactures? 148. What has rendered the shire of Perth interesting? 149. Mention some of the circumstances which have placed it in the E. part of Stirlingshire. 150. What has rendered Lang-Moor and Carberry-Hill famous? 151. What about Pinkie and Both-Well Bridge? 152. What occurred at Preston-Pans and Culloden-Moor? What can you mention about Killicrankie and Duplin? 154. Describe the Cave of Fingal. 155. Also Staffa and the Cave of Fingal. 156. Copy out from the table in Section Sixty-seven the population of all those places that exceed ten thousand souls. 157.* Give the limits of Ireland. 158.* State its population and superficial extent. 159.* When were England and Ireland united? 160.* What do you remember about the Erse language. 161.* Mention the names and situation of the great Irish provinces. 162.* What counties are included in Leinster? 163.* In Munster? 164.* In Connaught? 165.* In Ulster? 166.* How is Ireland represented in Parliament? 167. Copy the table in Section Seventy. 168.* Give the various names of the Irish medals. 169.* Describe it. 170.* What can you mention about Phoenix Park? 171.* What about Cork? 172. How many Universities are there in Ireland? 173. Where is Maynooth, and what about it? 174. Where are the principal manufactures of Ireland carried on? 175. Copy out from the table in Section Seventy-three the population of all those places that exceed five thousand souls. 176.* What can you mention about the dominions of Great Britain generally? 177.* Name our foreign possessions in Europe. 178.* In Asia. 179.* In Africa. 180.* In America. 181. Copy out the table in Section Seventy-six.

CHAPTER V.

KINGDOM OF FRANCE.

1.* How is France bounded? 2.* State its population and superficial extent. 3.* Describe the course of the Pyrenees. 4.* What do you know about M^t. Perdu? 5.* What about the Cevennes? 6.* And what about Puy de Dome, M^t. d'Or, and the Plomb du Cantal? 7.* Give some account of the range called Vosges. 8.* And of M^t. Jura. 9.* What can you mention about the Maritime Alps? 10.* Give the course and length of the R. Rhine. 11.* Also those of the R. Moselle. 12.* And the Meuse. 13.* Describe the R. Seine and its principal tributaries. 14.* What can you remember about the course of the R. Loire? 15.* And the Garonne?

16.* Mention some particulars about the R. Rhone. 17.* What about the Lake of Geneva? 18.* Mention the principal Gulfs of France. 19.* Also its chief Capes. 20.* Where are Le Pas de Calais and La Manche? 21.* What can you mention about the religion of the French? 22.* What is the nature of their government? 23. State some particulars concerning it. 24. And concerning the French Parliament. 25. How many Universities were there formerly in France, and how many are there now? 26. What can you mention concerning the Lycées and Academies? 27. Where are the Academies? 28. Where do the French Protestants study?

29.* How was France divided previous to the revolution? 30.* How is it now divided? 31. Copy out the table in Section Thirteen. 32.* Name the metropolis of France. 33.* How is it situated? 34.* Give its circumference and population. 35.* Mention some other particulars concerning it. 36.* What do you remember about Versailles and St. Cloud? 37.* What about Fontainebleau? 38. Where is Amiens? 39. What has rendered it remarkable? 40. Point out the situation of Cressy. 41. Mention some particulars about the battle which was fought there. 42. Where is Agincourt? 43. What has rendered it famous? 44. What can you state about this battle? 45. Where are Boulogne and Calais? 46. What has rendered Calais interesting to Englishmen? 47. Where is Guines, and what took place near it? 48. What do you know about Havre de Grace? 49. What about Cherbourg? 50. What renders the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, and Alderney, interesting to us, and where are they? 51. Give some account of Brest. 52. Of La Rochelle. 53. Of Bordeaux. 54. Where is Poitiers? 55. What has rendered it famous? 56. State some particulars about this battle. 57. Describe Orleans. 58. And Rheims. 59. And Lyons. 60. Name the two great French ports on the Mediterranean. 61. Give some account of Marseilles. 62. Of Toulon. 63. Of the I. of Corsica. 64.* Are the foreign possessions of France numerous? 65.* Name those which she holds in Asia. 66.* In Africa. 67.* In America.

CHAPTER VI.

KINGDOM OF BELGIUM.

1.* How is Belgium bounded? 2.* In what way, and when, was it connected with the Kingdom of The Netherlands? 3.* State its population and superficial extent. 4.* By what other names is Belgium often mentioned? 5.* What is said to be the origin of these names? 6. How were Holland and Belgium formerly divided? 7. In what way did this country fall into the power of Austria and Spain? 8. What led to the Union of Utrecht? 9. What was this Union? 10. In what way did it succeed in its project? 11. What then became of the Ten Belgic provinces? 12. What arrangement of the whole country took place in 1814? 13. How was this arrangement destroyed? 14.* Are there any mountains in Belgium? 15.* Mention its principal river. 16.* Describe its course. 17.* Name its chief Belgic tributaries. 18.* Point out the course of the Scheldt. 19.* How is this river divided near its mouth? 20.* Name its chief tributaries. 21.* Are there any lakes in Belgium? 22.* What can you state about De Peel? 23.* What do you know about its forests, particularly the Forest of Soigné? 24.* What part of Belgium touches upon the sea? 25.* What form of religion is established in Belgium? 26.* What is the nature of its government? 27.* How is its Parliament composed? 28.* Into how many provinces is Belgium divided? 29.* Give their names and situations.

Kingdom of Holland—Kingdom of Spain. 9

Copy out the table in Section Six. 31.* Name the metropolis of Belgium. 32.* What particulars do you remember concerning it? 33.* Where Waterloo, and what has rendered it memorable? 34. What Universities are there in Belgium? 35. What can you mention about its Athenæa? What language is spoken in Belgium? 37. Who are called Flemings? Name the chief manufacturing-towns of Belgium. 39. Which is its principal sea-port?

KINGDOM OF HOLLAND.

40.* How is Holland bounded? 41.* State its population and superficial extent. 42.* What Grand Duchy is attached to it? 43.* Give its area and population. 44.* What particulars can you mention about the Kingdom of the Netherlands? 45. Give some account of the old Republic of the Seven United Provinces. 46. How is it that Holland now contains five provinces? 47.* What mountains are there in Holland? 48.* Describe its chief river. 49.* Give the course of the R. Waal. 50.* Also of the true Rhine. 51.* Mention the other chief rivers of Holland. Point out the situation of the Zuyder Zee. 53.* Mention some circumstances in connexion with its formation. 54. Where is the Haarlem? 55. What do you know about the Lauwer See and The Dollart? 56. What do the Dutch call Polders? 57. Are the canals of Holland numerous? 58. What is their great use? 59. Are they frequently traversed? Give some account of the principal canal. 60.* What form of religion is established in Holland? 62.* What can you mention about it and the other sects? 63.* What kind of government has Holland? 64.* Describe its Parliament. 65. What Universities are there in Holland? 66. Give some account of its Athenæa. 67. What language is spoken in Holland? 68. Give the origin of the names Dutch and Holland. 69.* Name the provinces into which Holland is divided. Copy out the table in Section Twenty. 71.* Name the metropolis of Holland. 72.* Mention some particulars concerning it. 73.* What do you know about the castle of Ryswick? 74.* Where is Amsterdam, and whence has it derived its name? 75.* Give some account of it. 76. What particulars do you remember about Rotterdam? 77. About the Brielle? And Helvoetsluis? 79. Describe Haarlem. 80. And Leyden. 81.* Name the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg bounded? 82.* What do you know about its capital? 83.* Who is Grand Duke of Luxemburg? 84.* What Federal Body does it form a part? 85.* Name the Dutch possessions in Asia. 86.* In Africa. 87.* In America.

CHAPTER VII.

KINGDOM OF SPAIN.

1.* Give the limits of Spain. 2.* State its greatest length and breadth. Also its population and superficial extent. 4.* Describe the course of the Pyrenean Mountains. 5.* What range is connected with their Western extremity? 6.* Give some account of that range which extends from the base of the R. Ebro to Cape St. Martin opposite the Balearic Isles. 7.* Describe also of its continuation to the S. Westward. 8.* What do you remember about the Castilian Mts.? 9.* What about the Sierra de Toledo? 10.* And the Sierra Morena? 11.* Describe the course of the R. Ebro. 12.* Name its principal tributaries. 13.* Give some account of the R. Duero. 14.* And also of the R. Douro. 15.* Name the chief tributaries

Kingdom of Portugal.

of the Douro. 16.* Mention the longest river of Spain. 17.* Describe its course. 18.* Repeat what you know about the R. Guadiana. 19.* And about the R. Guadalquivir. 20.* Name the chief capes of Spain on the Atlantic Ocean. 21.* And on the Mediterranean Sea. 22.* Point out the situation of the Bay of Cadiz. 23.* Of the G. of Cartagena. 24.* Of the Gulfs of Alicante and Valencia. 25.* Describe the Strait of Gibraltar. 26.* Whence has it obtained its name? 27.* Mention its length and breadth.

28. When did the Moors invade Spain? 29. Did they reduce much of it under their subjection? 30. What provinces were first recovered from them? 31. What led to the overthrow of the Moorish power? 32. When were they finally driven from Spain, and which was the last province they had in possession here? 33.* What form of religion is established in Spain? 34.* What is the nature of the Spanish government? 35. What can you mention respecting the Spanish clergy? 36. Give some account of the Inquisition. 37. What was formerly the nature of the Spanish government? 38. Who were the Cortes? 39. What effected a change in the form of government? 40. What titles are given to the heir-apparent of Spain, and the princes of the royal family? 41. How many universities are there in Spain? 42. Name them. 43. Is literature encouraged in Spain? 44. What appears to be the cause of this? 45. What is the character of the Spanish Universities? 46.* How is Spain divided? 47.* With what other divisions do these provinces correspond? 48.* Name the provinces into which Spain is now divided. 49. Copy out the table in Section Nineteen.

50.* Name the metropolis of Spain. 51.* Describe its situation. 52.* Mention what other particulars you know about it. 53.* Give some account of the Escorial. 54. Where is Corunna, and what has rendered it memorable? 55. What do you know about Ferrol? 56. What can you mention respecting Ciudad-Rodrigo? 57. And respecting Salamanca? 58. Where is Vittoria, and what took place there? 59. Relate some particulars about Saragossa. 60. Describe Barcelona. 61. And Toledo. 62. What occurred at Talavera, and where is it? 63. What about Badajoz? 64. Where is Palos, and what has rendered it interesting? 65. Give some account of Seville. 66. And of Cadiz. 67. What can you mention about Xerez de la Frontera? 68. Where is C. Trafalgar, and what has rendered it memorable? 69. Give some account of this battle. 70. What do you remember about Tarifa? 71. Describe the city of Granada. 72. Where and what was the Alhambra? 73. Point out the situation of Gibraltar. 74. Describe its appearance. 75. Whence has it obtained its name? 76. Mention some particulars concerning it. 77. Is it strong? 78. Why is its possession important? 79. What about the town of Gibraltar? 80.* What islands are called the Balearic Is.? 81.* Point out their situation. 82.* What do you know about Mallorca? 83.* What about Minorca? 84.* What do you remember about the foreign possessions of Spain? 85.* Mention those which she still holds in Asia. 86.* In Africa. 87.* In America. 88.* What can you mention about her former dominion in America?

KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL.

89.* How is Portugal bounded? 90.* State its length and width. 91.* Also its population and superficial extent. 92.* With what mountains are the ranges of Portugal connected? 93.* Describe Monte Ladoco. 94.* What do you know about Cape Roca? 95.* What about the Sierra Estrella and Monte Junto? 96.* Where are the Sierra Arminno and the Sierra de Monchique? 97.* Where do all the great Portuguese rivers rise? 98.* Mention their names consecutively from N. to South. 99.* What countries

Republic of Switzerland.

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1. R. Gardiana partly divide 1 100.* Name the chief capes of Por-

2.* What form of religion is established in Portugal? 102.* What is the character of its priests and monks? 103.* What about the Inquisition again? 104.* What is the nature of the Portuguese government? Was it otherwise ordered formerly? 106. When did the Moors enter Portugal? 107. Was it recovered from them? 108. What circumstances brought on their expulsion? 109. How came Portugal to fall under dominion of Spain? 110. How long did it continue subject to Spain? What put an end to this posture of its affairs? 112. What do you hear about the Duke of Bragança? 113. In what way were the English and French latterly connected with Portugal? 114. What then became of the Portuguese royal family? 115. From what periods may the wars of Portugal with England be dated? 116.* Name the provinces into which Portugal is divided. 117. Copy out the table in Section Thirty-

1.* Name the metropolis of Portugal. 119.* Describe its situation and appearance. 120.* What other particulars can you mention concerning it? Where is the castle of St. Julian? 122. Give some account of Coimbra. 123. Where is Oporto? 124. Describe its appearance. 125. Give some account of its name. 126. Relate what else you know concerning it. 127. Can you state about the province of Algarve? 128. Give some account of its South Western extremity. 129.* Have the Portuguese many possessions? 130.* Mention those which they hold in Africa. 131.* Name them. 132.* How were they once connected with Brazil?

CHAPTER VIII.

REPUBLIC OF SWITZERLAND.

1.* By what other name is Switzerland known? 2.* How is it bounded? Does it touch upon the sea? 4.* State its population and superficial extent? 5.* Is it a mountainous country? 6.* How is it connected with France? 7.* What ranges bound it on the west? 8.* Mention some of the highest mountains in Switzerland. 9.* Give some account of the Simplon and Splügen. 10.* What can you state about the situation of Mont Blanc? 11. What are the Glaciers? 12. Describe their appearance. 13. What do you remember about their depth and extent? 14. And what about the degree of cold necessary for their formation? 15.* Describe the course of the R. Rhine. 16.* And of its tributary the R. Aare. 17.* What rivers flow into the Aare? 18.* Give some account of the R. Thur. 19.* Describe the course of the R. Rhone. 20.* What river joins it at Geneva? 21.* What do you know about the R. Tessin. 22.* And the R. Inn. 23. How many lakes in Switzerland? 24. Name the principal of them. What renders them important? 26.* What form of religion do the Swiss profess? 27.* How is Switzerland divided? 28.* Mention some particulars about its government. 29.* What Universities does it possess? 30.* Name its other great places of instruction. 31.* What languages are spoken in Switzerland? 32. How was it formerly divided? 33. What state of things followed this? 34. What do you remember about William Tell? 35. What cantons first declared themselves free? 36. Mention some particulars about the formation of the Swiss confederacy. 37. Copy out the table in Section Ten. 38.* Where is Geneva situated? 39.* Give some account of it. 40.* What

has rendered it remarkable? 41. Describe Bern. 42. And Basel. 43. Where is Schaffhausen? 44. From what does it derive its interest and importance? 45. Describe this cataract. 46. Where is Altorf? 47. What has rendered it illustrious? 48. Give some account of Lucerne. 49. Mention what you know about Lausanne. 50. Who were formerly educated there? 51. What do you know about Freyburg and Gruyere? 52. Where is Morat, and what took place there?

CHAPTER IX.

GERMAN STATES.

1.* How is Germany bounded? 2.* Into how many States is it divided? 3.* How are these unitedly governed? 4.* How is the internal government of each state regulated? 5.* State its population and superficial extent. 6.* What German States can you mention beyond the limits of Germany properly so called?

7.* What great range of mountains traverses Southern Germany? 8.* Describe its course. 9.* Where are the Tyrolese or Rhatian Alps? 10.* Mention some of their highest points. 11.* Describe the range of the Carnic or Julian Alps. 12.* Also the Noric Alps and the Kahlenberg? 13.* How are these connected with the Carpathian M^s? 14.* Where are the Hercynian M^s? 15.* Of what great range is it the continuation? 16.* Describe its course to the Fichtel-berg. 17.* Where is the Fichtel-berg? 18.* Give some account of the Vogelsberg and Teutoburger-wald? 19.* What can you state about the Siebenbergen? 20.* Describe the Thuringer-wald? 21.* How is Bohemia enclosed? 22.* Mention the names by which this circular chain of mountains is known. 23.* By what other name are the Carpathian M^s known? 24.* Describe their course. 25.* What countries do they separate? 26.* Give some account of the Oden-Wald and Black Forest. 27.* Where is the ridge called the Rauhe Alpe?

28.* Mention the longest river in Germany. 29.* Point out its course. 30.* Give its length. 31.* Mention its chief tributaries. 32.* Describe the course of the R. Rhine. 33.* Name its German tributaries. 34.* Give some account of the R. Mayn. 35.* Repeat what you know about the Ems. 36.* About the Weser and its adjuncts. 37.* About the Elbe and its tributaries. 38.* Name the German rivers which run into the Baltic Sea. 39.* Describe the Oder and its tributaries. 40.* Also the Vistula. 41.* Also the Pregel. 42.* Also the Neman. 43. What German gulfs can you mention in the Baltic Sea? 44. State what you know about the Frische Haff and the Curische Haff. 45. Which is the principal lake in Germany? 46. What others can you mention?

47.* What forms of religion are at present acknowledged by law in Germany? 48.* To what extent does liberty of conscience prevail amongst them? 49.* In what parts of the country does the Lutheran, the Calvinistic, and the Roman Catholic, religion prevail? 50.* What proportion do these sects bear to each other? 51.* What other sects can you mention here? 52. When was the Christian religion introduced into Germany? 53. How and when was that country connected with the Reformation? 54. What was the state of the clergy prior to this event? 55. Who led on the Reformation? 56. Where was Martin Luther born? 57. What do you remember about his character and talents generally? 58. Who was Pope of Rome when Luther was elected professor of divinity at Wittenberg? 59. What was the character of this pope? 60. What means did he adopt to replenish

asury? 61. What do the papists mean by Indulgences? 62. How
 other notice this blasphemous traffic? 63. What did he say about it
 advocates in his church at Wittenberg? 64. How did his adversaries
 treat him? 65. With what encouragement did he meet amongst the
 ? 66. When and by whom was he summoned to Rome? 67. What
 place at Augsburg? 68. What followed? 69. When did Luther
 off his monastic habit? 70. Give some account of the Diet held
 afterwards at Spire. 71. What is the origin of the name Protestants?
 When did Luther die, and where was he buried?

* How many votes are there in the German Diet, and how are they
 ned out? 74.* For what purposes does the Diet form itself into a
 al assembly? 75.* How do the States then vote, and what majority is
 necessary? 76.* Is this system always pursued? 77.* What other
 is adopted for all ordinary discussions? 78.* What privileges does
 ia hold in the Diet? 79. What can you remember about the sittings
 e Diet? 80. And about the reciprocal engagements of each state
 ng the Confederation? 81. What fortresses does the Confederation as
 ly possess?

. Of how many states did Germany formerly consist? 83. How were
 governed? 84. What do you remember about the Free Cities and the
 endent nobles? 85. Which of the great princes enjoyed the rank of
 ? 86. By what titles were the others distinguished? 87. In what
 was the Emperor of Germany chosen at different times? 88. Name
 Electors of Germany. 89. Mention some of the Emperor's prerogatives.
 Give the date of the origin of the Imperial power. 91. What state
 dy enjoyed it? 92. In whom was the government of the whole empire
 ed? 93. Give some account of the three Imperial colleges. 94. Was
 any divided differently at different times? 95. What partition of it do
 en meet with in history? 96. Mention these thirteen divisions, with
 situation. 97. Which of them were called Circles? 98. Repeat
 t you know about the mediatised Princes.

2.* Whereabouts is the kingdom of Hanover? 100.* Where are Olden-
 ; and Mecklenburg? 101.* Give the limits of the Prussian territories.
 * Point out the situation of the kingdom of Saxony. 103.* And of the
 trian Empire. 104.* What states besides its federal possessions does
 Empire of Austria include? 105.* What States can you name in the
 V. part of Germany? 106.* How are the Petty States of the Confede-
 ra situated? 107.* Mention the chief ones amongst them. 108.* Name
 four Free Cities of Germany. 109.* Which are the Hanse Towns, and
 are they so called? 110.* Give the history of the Hanseatic League.
 .* How was Lubeck distinguished through it? 112. Copy out the table
 Section Twenty-seven. 113.* How many Universities were there for-
 ty in Germany, and how many are there now? 114.* How many of
 e are Protestant, and how many Roman Catholic? 115.* What about
 tingen? 116. Copy out the table in Section Twenty-nine.

117.* How is the Kingdom of Hanover bounded? 118.* State its popu-
 on and superficial extent. 119.* What is the prevailing religion in
 over? 120.* What form of government has it? 121.* Who is King
 Hanover? 122.* What can you state about the metropolis of Hanover?
 1. How long has Hanover belonged to England? 124. Have the two
 intries ever been politically incorporated? 125. What rank does the
 ng of Hanover take at the Diet? 126. In what way is the constitution
 Hanover counterpoised? 127. Name the provinces into which Hanover
 divided. 128. Describe Goslar. 129. Mention the other chief towns of
 over.

130.* How is the Kingdom of Prussia bounded? 131.* Give the limits of that part of the kingdom which is called Rhine-Prussia. 132.* State its population and superficial extent. 133.* Mention some particulars about the religion of the country. 134.* And about its government. 135.* What rank does the King hold at the German Diet? 136.* Give some account of Berlin. 137.* What about Potsdam? 138. Copy out the table in Section Thirty-four. 139. What other territories does Prussia possess? 140. Describe Dantzic. 141. To what gulf has it given name? 142. What do you remember about Königsberg? 143. Where is Tilsit, and what has rendered it famous? 144. Repeat what you know about Breslau. 145. And about Frankfort-on-the-Oder. 146. Describe the town of Brandenburg. 147. And Wittenberg. 148. Mention what you know about Cologne. 149. Where is Aix-la-Chapelle? 150. What can you remember concerning it? 151. Give some particulars about Coblentz and Ehrenbreitstein.

152.* How is the Kingdom of Saxony bounded? 153.* State its area and population. 154.* What can you mention concerning its former and present extent? 155.* What about its religion? 156.* State some particulars about its government. 157.* Describe its metropolis. 158.* Which is reckoned the purest dialect of the German language? 159. What rank does the king of Saxony hold in the German Diet? 160. How is his kingdom divided? 161. Mention what you know concerning Leipsic.

162.* How is the whole Empire of Austria bounded? 163.* State its area and population. 164.* What part of these is in Germany? 165.* What can you mention about the religion of Austria? 166.* Give some account of its government. 167.* How is the Austrian Empire divided? 168.* Name the various states composing it. 169.* Where is Vienna? 170.* Give some account of it. 171.* What about Schönbrunn? 172. Copy the table in Section Forty-four. 173. Mention what you know about Prague. 174. Also about Presburg. 175. And Buda. 176. Where is Trieste, and what renders it important? 177. Point out the situation of Venice. 178. Describe its appearance. 179. When was it founded? 180. Relate some particulars in its history. 181. When did it fall into the power of Austria? 182. Where is the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom? 183. In what ways is the name Lombardy used? 184. Whence did it obtain its name? 185. What territories does it comprehend? 186. Describe the city of Milan.

187.* How is the kingdom of Bavaria bounded? 188.* State its area and population. 189.* What form of religion is established in Bavaria? 190.* What is the nature of its government? 191.* Give some account of its Parliament. 192.* Describe the metropolis of Bavaria. 193.* What about Nimphenburg? 194. What rank does the king of Bavaria take at the German Diet? 195. Copy out the table in Section Fifty. 196. Give some account of Speyer. 197. And of Ratisbon. 198. Where is Augsburg, and what has rendered it famous?

199.* How is the kingdom of Wurtemberg bounded? 200.* State its area and population. 201.* What do you remember about its religion and government? 202. Copy the table in Section Fifty-three. 203. What place does the King of Wurtemberg hold in the German Diet? 204. Describe Stuttgart and Tubingen. 205. Where is Hamburg situated? 206. For what was it formerly, and for what is it now, famous? 207. What form of religion is there established? 208. Give some account of its government and constitution. 209. Describe Cuxhaven. 210. Mention what you know about Bremen. 211. About Lubeck. 212. And about Frankfort-on-the-Mayn.

CHAPTER X.

KINGDOM OF DENMARK.

How is the Kingdom of Denmark bounded? 2.* Upon what states it touch? 3.* Mention its component parts. 4.* Give the length and th of the peninsula of Denmark. 5.* State the area and population of hole kingdom. 6.* What can you mention about the hills of Den-? 7.* Are its rivers large? 8.* Name the chief of them. 9.* What ou recollect about the R. Eyder? 10.* Does the R. Elbe touch upon ark? 11.* Are there any lakes in Denmark? 12.* Describe the Fiord. 13.* What others can you enumerate? 14. Mention the capes of Denmark. 15. And likewise its principal bays. 16.* How mmark separated from Sweden? 17.* How does the Cattogat com-icate with the Baltic Sea? 18.* Give some account of the Sound. Of the Great Belt. 20.* And of the Little Belt.

.* What form of religion is established in Denmark? 22.* Give some ant of the Danish government. 23. What can you mention about the try of the ancient Danes? 24. Relate some particulars about their ersion to Christianity. 25. What was formerly the character of the ish monarchy? 26. What brought about the great change in it? 27. ame Sweden and Norway to be united to Denmark? 28. When did this place? 29. When was Sweden separated from Denmark? 30. Up to 2period did Denmark retain possession of Norway? 31. What did she ive as an equivalent for it? 32. How and when did the provinces of wig and Holstein become annexed to the crown of Denmark? 33. y out the table in Section Ten.

.* Point out the situation of the Danish metropolis. 35.* Mention e particulars concerning it. 36.* What do you know about Elsinore? What about the Skaw, and the lighthouse there? 38. Describe the town alborg. 39. Where is Viborg, and what has rendered it interesting? Mention some particulars about Aarhus. 41. And Flensburg. 42. scribe the town of Sleswig. 43. Where are Rendsborg and Kiel? 44. eat what you know about Gluckstadt. 45. Where is Altona, and why t worthy of note? 46. Describe the situation of Odensee? 47. What ders it remarkable? 48.* What do you remember about Heligoland? * Where are the Ferroe Islands? 50.* State what you know about m. 51.* Mention the Danish possessions in Asia. 52.* In Africa. * In America. 54.* Give the area and population of the whole Danish narchy.

CHAPTER XI.

KINGDOM OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

1.* State the area and population of Sweden and Norway. 2.* How is eparated from Russia? 3.* How is it bounded on the other sides? 4.* hat names are, in various parts, applied to the Strait between Sweden and mmark? 5.* What can you mention about the narrowest part of this rait? 6.* Give the length and breadth of the Scandinavian peninsula. * Describe the course of the great range of mountains in it. 8.* In what ay does it connect Sweden and Norway? 9.* What effect does it produce on the rivers of the country? 10.* By what appellations is it known?

11.* Name some of its highest points. 12.* What is the character of the Swedish and Norwegian rivers? 13.* Mention the principal rivers of Sweden. 14.* And likewise those of Norway. 15. Are there many lakes in the Scandinavian peninsula? 16. What is their character? 17. Describe L. Wenern. 18. What other lakes can you mention? 19. What do you remember about the forests of Sweden and Norway? 20. Name the principal capes of Sweden. 21. What is the character of the Norwegian coast? 22. Mention the chief seas round Sweden.

23.* Repeat what you know about the religion of Sweden. 24.* How have Sweden and Norway been governed since 1814. 25.* Give some account of the government and constitution of Sweden. 26. What religion did the Swedes anciently profess? 27. What can you mention with regard to their temple at Upsal. 28. In what way was Finland formerly connected with Sweden? 29. When did she lose it? 30. What did she receive in exchange for it? 31.* Of what kingdoms did Sweden originally consist? 32.* How is it now divided? 33.* Give its estimated population. 34.* What can you state about its foreign territory? 35. Copy out the table from Section Nine.

36.* Where is the metropolis of Sweden? 37.* Give some account of it. 38. Where is Upsal? 39. Give some description of it. 40. What rendered Old Upsal famous? 41. What do you recollect concerning it? 42. To what is the term Runic applied? 43. Whence is it said to be derived? 44. What has been surmised concerning the Runic characters? 45. What appears to prove they were not borrowed from the Roman characters? 46. What do the old poems and chronicles of the North assert concerning the Runic characters? 47. What can you state about Wasteras? 48. Describe Gottenburg. 49. Where is Carlskrona? 50. What do you know about Calmar? 51. And the I. of Gottland?

52.* How is Norway divided? 53.* What form of religion is there established? 54.* Describe its government and constitution. 55.* State its population. 56.* Describe its metropolis. 57.* What is the Storting, and where does it assemble? 58. How was Norway formerly divided? 59. When was it incorporated with Denmark? 60. How was it that in 1814 Norway was united to Sweden? 61. In what way was it united? 62. How is it now governed? 63. Copy out the table in Section Sixteen. 64. Where is Friderickshald, and why is it worthy of note? 65. What can you state about the Naze? 66. What is the character of the Norwegian coast? 67. Where are the Loffoden Isles? 68. Give some account of the Malstrom.

CHAPTER XII.

RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

1.* What portion of the world does the Russian Empire occupy? 2.* Between what points does it extend? 3.* State its population and superficial extent. 4.* How is it divided? 5. Copy out the table in Section Two.

6.* How is European Russia bounded? 7.* Give its area and estimated population. 8.* Is it a mountainous country? 9.* What is meant by the term Steppe? 10.* What lofty chains of mountains can you mention towards its extremities? 11. What can you state about the mountains of Finland? 12. What about the Oural M^s? 13. What about the Caucasus? 14. Give some account of the Valdai M^s. 15. What rivers rise in them?

16.* Describe the course of the R. Volga. 17.* And likewise those of the Don and Dniepr. 18.* State what you know about the R. Dniestr.

What about the Boug and Pruth? 20.* Where are the rivers Vistula and Dnieper? 21.* What do you remember about the Western R. Dvina? What about the Msta and L. Ladoga? 23.* Describe the R. Neva. Where is the R. Onega? 25.* Give some account of the Northern Sea. 26.* What about the R. Pitchora? 27.* Where are the principal gulfs of European Russia met with? 28.* Name them. 29.* Where are the Gulfs of Livonia and Finland? 30.* Where is the White Sea, and what bays does it contain? 31.* Where are the Gulfs of Tcheskaya and Kara? 32.* What Russian provinces are washed by the Black Sea? Describe the Sea of Azov. 34.* And the Strait of Enikale. 35.* Name the chief capes of European Russia.

What is the established form of religion in Russia? 37.* What does the Russian Church bear? 38.* In what particulars does it differ from the Roman Catholic Church? 39.* What is the nature of the Russian government? 40.* What particulars do you remember concerning the Russian constitution? 41.* In what light has the Russian government been considered latterly? What is meant by the term Ukase? 43.* Mention what you know of the Russian nobility. 44.* How was the nobility formerly divided, and how is it now? 45.* In what light do they consider themselves? 46.* Give some account of the peasantry. 47.* What can you state about the legislative body? 48.* What titles has the Emperor borne at various times? 49.* In what state is education in Russia? 50.* Name its Universities. 51.* What can you mention about their professors, and Russian science in general.

52.* Has Russia varied much in her territorial divisions? 53.* How many governments or provinces does it now contain? 54.* How many of them formerly belonged to Poland? 55.* Mention those which are partly in Europe and partly in Asia. 56.* Give some account of the old division of Russia. 57.* Of Little Russia. 58.* Of Black Russia. 59.* Of White Russia. 60.* Of Red Russia. 61.* Copy out the table in Section Twenty.

62.* Was the old kingdom of Poland extensive? 63.* How was it divided? 64.* State its area and population. 65.* How did its inhabitants live? 66.* What great governments did it contain, and how were they subdivided? 67.* In what way is the name of Poland still officially preserved? 68.* With what former division of the country does this application of the name correspond? 69.* Mention what you know about the religion of the Polish people. 70.* And the manner in which they are governed. 71.* Who is styled the Czar of Russia? 72.* State what you know about the present constitution of Poland. 73.* How long do the sittings of its Diet last? 74.* Copy out the table in Section Twenty-one. 75.* When was the Reformation introduced into Poland? 76.* How was it received? In what way did the Church of Rome then act? 77.* What followed in the Partition of Poland took place? 78.* What was the nature of the government of Poland? 79.* Mention some particulars about its constitution. 80.* How came the nobility to obtain the preponderance in the Diet? 81.* How far did they proceed in their assumption of power? 82.* What did this finally lead to? 83.* What used to take place at Wola? Who was the last king of Poland, and what about him? 85.* Who first effected a partition of Poland? 86.* When, and by what Powers, was it effected? 87.* What courts protested against this monstrous invasion? How did the Poles behave? 88.* By whom, and when, was a farther partition of it carried into effect? 89.* When did the final partition take place, and what about it? 90.* Give the history of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw. 91.* And likewise that of the present kingdom of Poland.

94.* Point out the situation of the present metropolis of the Russian Empire. 95.* Describe its appearance. 96.* State what you know about its history. 97.* Give some account of its University. 98. Point out the situation of Moscow. 99. What dignity did it formerly possess, and what privilege does it still retain? 100. Describe its appearance. 101. What can you state about the Kremlin? 102. Mention some particulars concerning the conflagration of Moscow. 103. Where is Helsingfors? 104. What do you know about it? 105. What about Abo? 106. Mention the principal sea-ports of European Russia. 107. How is Warsaw situated? 108. Give some description of it. 109.* What rank did the city of Cracow formerly hold? 110.* What was done with it at the Congress of Vienna in 1815? 111.* How is it situated? 112.* Mention some particulars concerning it.

CHAPTER XIII.

ITALIAN STATES.

1.* How is Italy bounded? 2.* Upon what countries does it touch? 3.* Is the whole of Italy subject to one Sovereign? 4.* What do you remember about the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom? 5.* Give some account of the Kingdom of Sardinia. 6.* And of the Duchies of Parma, Modena, Massa-Carrara, and Lucca. 7.* Where is the Grand Duchy of Tuscany? 8.* Describe Popedom. 9.* What do you know about the republic of San Marino? 10.* What about the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies?

11.* Point out the direction the Alps take through Italy. 12.* Describe the Maritime Alps. 13.* And also the Cottian and Graian Alps. 14.* Give some account of M^t. Blanc. 15.* Where are the Pennine Alps? 16.* Where are the Rætian Alps? 17.* What about the Carnic or Julian Alps? 18.* Describe the course of the Apennines. 19.* Give some account of M^t. Vesuvius. 20.* What can you state about the mountains of Sicily? 21.* What about M^t. Etna?

22.* Give the course of the chief river of Italy. 23.* Name its principal tributaries. 24.* How many mouths has it? 25.* What can you mention about the Po di Volano and Po di Primaro? 26.* Give some account of the R. Adige. 27.* Of the R. Arno. 28.* Of the R. Tevere. 29.* Name the tributaries of the latter. 30. What rivers can you mention between the Tiber and the Arno? 31. What other rivers can you mention on the Western coast of Italy? 32. And what on its Eastern coast? 33.* Name the principal gulfs on the W. coast. 34.* And likewise those on the E. coast. 35. What can you mention about the lakes in the N. of Italy? 36. Name them. 37. Repeat what you know about the lakes in the central part of Italy. 38.* Name the chief capes on the E. shores of the country. 39.* And likewise those on its W. shores.

40.* What territories does the Kingdom of Sardinia comprise? 41.* State its area and population. 42.* Mention some particulars about the I. of Sardinia. 43.* And likewise about continental Sardinia. 44.* What form of religion exists in Sardinia? 45.* And what form of government? 46. Give some account of the Universities of the kingdom. 47. Copy out the table in Section Sixteen. 48.* Point out the situation of Turin. 49.* Relate what you know about it. 50.* What about Alexandria? 51.* Where is Marengo, and what occurred there? 52.* Where is Genoa? 53.* Mention some particulars concerning it. 54. Describe its appearance. 55. When did Genoa rise into importance? 56. Mention some particulars in its history. 57. What paved the way to her ruin? 58. How did the French

ution affect it? 59. What arrangement was made respecting it at the Congress of Vienna? 60. Give some account of Cagliari.

61.* How is the Duchy of Parma bounded? 62.* State its population superficial extent. 63.* What religion do the inhabitants profess? What is their form of government? 65. What political arrangement made in 1814 about this State? 66. Copy the table in Section Twenty-seven. 67.* How is the town of Parma situated? 68.* Give some account of it. 69. What can you mention about the town of Piacenza? 70. What is the town of Guastalla?

71.* How is the Duchy of Modena bounded? 72.* State its area and population. 73.* Describe its form of religion and government. 74. What do you remember about the possession of this duchy? 75. Copy the table in Section Twenty-seven. 76. Give some account of Modena. 77. Of Reggio. 78. Of Mirandola.

79.* How is the Duchy of Massa-Carrara bounded? 80.* State its area and population. 81.* What do you know about its religion and government? 82.* Name its chief towns. 83. Of what territories is this State composed? 84. What political arrangement is connected with it? 85. What can you state about the surface of the country? 86. Describe the situation of the Duchy. 87. And likewise the town of Carrara.

88.* How is the Duchy of Lucca bounded? 89.* What disjointed portions of territory does it possess? 90.* State its area and population. 91.* Give some account of its religion and government. 92.* Name its metropolis. 93. What particulars can you mention in the history of Lucca? 94. Where is its capital situated? 95. Describe it.

96.* How is the Grand Duchy of Tuscany bounded? 97.* State its area and population. 98.* What form of religion is established there? 99.* Give some account of the Government. 100. What insulated possessions has Tuscany? 101. Copy out the table in Section Thirty-six. 102. What was Tuscany originally connected with Lombardy? 103. How was it subdivided? 104. What family at length obtained its sovereignty? 105. Mention some further particulars in the history of the State. 106.* Describe the situation of its capital. 107.* Describe its appearance. 108.* Give some other particulars about it. 109. Where is Pisa, and what renders it of note? 110. Give the situation of Leghorn. 111. Describe its appearance. 112. What renders it important? 113. Where is the Maremma, and what about it? 114. Give some account of Sienna. 115. Where is Elba, and what has rendered it remarkable?

116.* By what other names is the State of the Church known? 117.* How is it bounded, and upon what territories does it touch? 118.* Mention its length and breadth. 119.* State its area and population. 120.* What is the religion of its inhabitants? 121.* What great errors of the Church of Rome have been renounced and opposed by the Protestants? 122.* What is the form of government in the Roman States? 123.* What can you mention concerning it? 124. Who alone can be candidates for the Papal tiara? 125. How is the Pope chosen? 126. Who can object to his election? 127. Give some account of the Cardinals. 128. What is meant by a Consistory? 129. And by a Congregation of Cardinals?

130. Give an abstract of Section Forty-six. 131. At what places had Christian churches been founded at the closing of the Canon of Scripture? 132. In what way was each of these Churches governed? 133. How were they opposed? 134. What effect did this produce upon them? 135. What heresies sprung up at the death of Constantine? 136. What did they lead to? 137. What was their consequence? 138. What was then the state of the world? 139. For what corruptions of Christianity did this state make

room? 140. How were the early Christian churches united? 141. What first distinguished the Church of Rome? 142. What was its Bishop then enabled to do? 143. What increased his power? 144. In what light was he looked upon by the other churches? 145. What early instances can you give of his authority having been disregarded by other churches? 146. In what way did the political divisions of Italy, in the fourth century, increase the influence of the See of Rome? 147. Where was the Roman vicariate, and who presided over it? 148. Mention some circumstances concerning it, and the Roman Patriarchate as it was called. 149. What effect did the removal of the seat of Empire to Constantinople have upon the Church of Rome? 150. Mention some of the other causes that increased the power of the Roman Pontiff. 151. What title did Phocas grant to the Bishop of Rome? 152. Give some account of Phocas. 153. Was the creed of the Roman Church the same then as it was when the Council of Trent was called? 154. What disagreement can you mention between the published works of Pope Leo and the decrees of the Council of Trent? 155. What does this prove as to the fallibility of the Roman Church? 156. How may the faith of that church be described? 157. What was the state of the Roman Church from the grant of Phocas to the age of Luther? 158. What was its consequence? 159. What brought about the Reformation.

160. What can you mention about the first temporal possessions of the Popes. 161. What did King Pepin do for them? 162. How did Charlemagne behave to them? 163. What character did the popes now display?

164. Whence did they obtain the Duchy of Benevento, the Patrimony of St. Peter (as it is called), Sabina, and the City of Rome? 165. And whence did they obtain Ancona and Urbino? 166. Give some account of their last conquests? 167. What claims does the Pope make upon all Christians? 168. To what rank does he aspire, and how does he endeavour to obtain it? 169. What splendour does he assume, and what humble title does he affect? 170. How does he regard lotteries and the inquisition.

171.* Into how many provinces was the State of the Church formerly divided? 172.* Name them. 173.* When were these discontinued, and how is the country now divided? 174. Copy the table in Section Fifty-six. 175. What can you state about Benevento and Ponte-Corvo? 176. In what way has the Pope's power in Ferrara, Avignon, and Venaissin, been altered? 177.* Give the situation of the Papal metropolis. 178.* Describe its appearance. 179.* In what way does it correspond with the ancient capital of the world? 180.* What can you mention about the cathedral of St. Peter, and the churches in Rome generally? 181. Give some account of St. Peter's. 182. Of the Pantheon. 183. Of the Colosseum. 184. Name the Pope's three palaces. 185. Describe the Lateran. 186. The Quirinal. 187. And the Vatican. 188.* What can you mention about Porto? 189.* What about Civita Vecchia? 190.* And Ancona. 191. Where is Loreto? 192. For what is it celebrated? 193. Give the history of the Santa Casa. 194. Describe Bologna.

195.* Where is the Republic of San Marino, and how is it bounded? 196.* Mention its extent. 197.* Of what places is it composed? 198.* What is its population, and how is it governed? 199. When and by whom was this state founded? 200. Give some account of its founder? 201. What is the history of the State? 202. Mention what you know about its constitution.

203.* By what other name is the kingdom of Naples known? 204.* How is it bounded? 205.* State its area and population. 206.* Also the dimensions of its continental territory. 207.* What can you mention about the size of Sicily? 208*. Repeat what you know about the form of religion

used in the Two Sicilies. 209.* What form of government is there
ed? 210.* Name its Universities. 211. What are the two great
of Italy. 212. Give some account of the brigands. 213. How is the
om of Naples divided? 214. Copy out the table in Section Sixty-nine.

Point out the situation of the Neapolitan metropolis. 216.* Describe
pearance. 217. Give some further particulars about it, and its patron-

218. What do you remember about the Lazzaroni? 219. What
the Campagna Felice? 220. Give some account of M^t. Vesuvius.
Also of Herculaneum. 222. Also of Pompeii. 223. Mention what
know about Salerno. 224. What about Gaeta. 225. And Taranto.
Where is Messina? 227. Give some account of it. 228. Where is
aro of Messina? 229. What renders Catania remarkable, and where

230. Point out the situation of M^t. Etna. 231. Mention some par-
ars concerning it. 232.* Describe the capital of Sicily. 233.* For
is it remarkable? 234. Where is Syracuse? 235. Mention some
ulars about it. 236. What about the Ear of Dionysius? 237. And
ountain of Arethusa?

8.* Describe the situation of the Maltese Islands. 239.* Of what
is are they composed? 240.* State their population and superficial
it. 241.* How many inhabitants are there in Malta alone? 242.*
n was Malta taken by the British, and to whom does it now belong?
In what way are the Maltese governed? 244.* What can you state
t the fortifications of Malta. 245.* What do you remember about
tta? 246. Mention some particulars concerning the knights of St.

CHAPTER XIV.

TURKISH OR OTTOMAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

* Give the limits of the Ottoman Empire. 2.* What countries does
clude? 3.* What can you state about the present power of the Turks?
What part of their territory have they lately lost? 5.* Name the two
d divisions of the Ottoman Empire. 6.* Over what other territories
it likewise extend its pretensions? 7. When did the Turks first figure
istory? 8. Whence did they come? 9. Give some account of their
press. 10. How, and under whom, were their conquests united? 11.
o first assumed the title of Sultan? 12. Where did he fix the seat of
empire? 13. What did his successors do? 14. When were Adrianople
Constantinople taken? 15. What other conquests did the Turks make?
When were they finally checked? 17. How have they behaved since
period?

8.* How is Turkey in Europe bounded? 19.* State its area and popula-
l. 20.* What sort of a country is it? 21.* What is the direction of its
great mountain-ranges? 22.* Point out the course of the Northern
t? 23.* What rivers and provinces does it separate? 24.* With what
at range is it connected on the West? 25.* Where does it terminate?
.* By what names is it known? 27. Describe the ridge of mountains
led Codja-Balkan. 28. What smaller ranges join M^t. Hæmus? 29.*
int out the course of the mountain-range named Pindus? 30.* What
vinces and rivers does it separate? 31.* Where does it quit M^t. Hæmus,
and where does it terminate? 32.* By what names is it known? 33.
ention what you know about the Volutza M^t. and M^t. Olympus. 34.
hat about Ossa and Pelion?

35.* Describe the course of the R. Danube. 36.* Name its chief Turkish tributaries. 37.* What Turkish rivers run into the Archipelago? 38. Describe the R. Maritza. 39. Also the Nestus. 40. Also the Stroma. 41. Also the Vardar and Indje-Mauro. 42. Also the Salembria and Ellada. 43.* Name the chief rivers in the W. part of Turkey. 44. What can you mention about the R. Narenta? 45. What about the R. Drino? 46. What about the R. Vojuzzo? 47. Describe the rivers Arta and Aspro-Potamo. 48.* What can you state about the gulfs of Bourgas, Saros, and Enos? 49.* What gulfs can you mention on the shores of Macedonia? 50.* On the shores of Thessaly? 51.* Where are the gulfs of Arta, Valona, and Scutari? 52. Where is L. Rassein? 53. What lakes can you mention in Macedonia? 54. What lakes in Albania? 55. What lake in Thessaly? 56. Mention the chief Turkish Capes on the Black Sea. 57. Also those on the Ægean Sea. 58. Also those on the Adriatic Sea. 59. Describe the Thracian Bosphorus. 60. Give some account of the Hellespont. 61. What do you know about the castles of The Dardenelles? 62. Where is the channel of Trikeri? 63. Where is the St. of Corfu? 64. Describe the St. of Otranto.

65.* What is the religion of the Turks? 66.* To what sect do they belong? 67.* What is the rule of their faith? 68.* What can you mention about their fasts and ablutions? 69.* What about their mosques? 70.* What is the nature of the Turkish government? 71.* Describe the Sultan's power. 72.* By what is it restrained? 73. Where and how are the Turkish youth educated? 74. What is the character of their teachers? 75. In what state are literature, statuary, and painting amongst the Turks? 76. Are there any Greek Christians in Turkey? 77. What does the Turkish law maintain with respect to private property? 78. Who is the Grand Vizier? 79. What is the office of the Kioga Bey? 80. Of the Reis Effendi and the Defterdar? 81. How many kinds of Pachas are there, and what are their duties? 82. Who are the Sangiak-Beys? 83. What is the Divan? 84. Give some account of the Ulema and Grand Mufti. 85. Who are styled Imams? 86.* Name the provinces into which we Europeans divide Turkey in Europe. 87.* How do the Turks divide it? 88.* What do you remember about the government of Walachia and Moldavia? 89.* Name the pachalics into which the Turks divide Turkey-in-Europe. 90. Copy out the table in Section Twenty-two.

91.* Where is the Ottoman metropolis? 92.* What particulars can you mention about it? 93.* Give some account of the ancient wall of Theodosius. 94.* What can you state about the origin of the name Sublime Porte? 95. Mention what you know about the suburbs of Constantinople. 96. Describe the harbour of The Golden Horn. 97. Describe the appearance and the interior of Constantinople. 98. What about the Seraglio and the Harem? 99. What is the Castle of the Seven Towers? 100. How many mosques are there in Constantinople? 101. And how many Christian churches? 102. Give some particulars about the mosque of St. Sophia. 103. What can you state with respect to the public buildings and ancient monuments in Constantinople? 104. Where are Galata and Pera, and what about them? 105. What about St. Demetri and Scutari?

106.* Point out the situation of Adrianople. 107.* When did the Turks take it? 108.* Mention some particulars concerning it. 109. Where are Bourgas, Sizoboli, and Varna? 110. Give some account of Schoumla. 111. And of Sophia. 112. Describe Bukarest. 113. Where is Belgrade? 114. Describe its appearance. 115. Mention some particulars in its history? 116. Where is the province of Albania? 117. By what name are its inhabitants known? 118. What is their character? 119. Give the history of

reg. 120. Mention what you know about Janina. 121. Give the story of Ali Pacha. 122. Where is the district of Souli? 123. Give account of the Souliotes. 124. Describe Arta. 125. Also Valona. Where is Salonica? 127. Mention what you know about it. 128. How do the Turks call Franks? 129. What do the Turks call the I. of Corfu? 130. In what way do they divide it? 131. Mention some points of Greek history. 132. Describe the capital of the island. 133. What do you know about Retimo? 134. What about Canea?

CHAPTER XV.

KINGDOM OF GREECE.

How is the kingdom of Greece bounded? 2.* Describe the line of division between it and European Turkey. 3.* What islands belong to Greece? 4.* State the area and extent of the whole kingdom. 5.* What can you mention about its connexion with the Ottoman Porte? 6.* Is Greece a mountainous country? 7.* What is meant by Perpetual Congelation? Where does Mt. Pindus enter Greece? 9.* What about Mt. Ceta? Give some account of Thermopylæ. 11.* Point out the direction the ridge of Mt. Pindus takes through Greece. 12.* What summits can you mention in it? 13.* Describe the ridge of Paleo-Vouni. 14.* How is the Morea traversed by Mountains? 15.* Describe its Northern range. Mention what you know about its Eastern range.

What can you state generally about the rivers of Greece? 18.* Describe the courses of the rivers Fidari and Morno. 19.* Repeat what you know about the Castalian Spring. 20.* Give some account of the R. Asopos. 21.* Of the R. Asopo. 22.* Of the R. Ilissus. 23.* Which are the two greatest rivers of the Morea, and where do they rise? 24.* Describe their courses. 25.* What other rivers can you mention in the peninsula? 26.* Mention what you know about the G. of Lepanto. 27.* About the G. of Patras. 28.* About the Gulfs of Arcadia, Kalamata, and Kolonos. 29.* What about the G. of Nauplia? 30.* Describe L. Topolias. Name some of the chief capes in continental Greece. 32.* Describe the Isthmus which separates the I. of Negropont from the mainland. 33.* What can you state about the Strait of Lepanto? 34.* What form of religion is established in Greece? 35.* What does the Greek Church acknowledge as the rule of its faith? 36.* What do you remember about the constitution and government of Greece?

What creeds are allowed by the Greek Church? 38. What things do they admit in common with the Papists? 39. In what light do they view the Eucharist? 40. And Purgatory? 41. And the infallibility of their Church? 42. Mention other particulars about them. 43. What nations profess the creed of the Greek Church? 44. What can you remember about the authority of the Patriarch of Constantinople? 45. What about the schisms of the Greek Church? 46. When did the first jealousy spring up between the Greek and Roman Churches? 47. When, and by what, was it increased? 48. When did their final separation take place? 49. What was the pretext? 50. What pretext was alleged by the pope for his conduct in the matter? 51. What appears to have been the true cause of his interference? 52. What provinces did he claim? 53. How was this claim resisted by the Greeks? 54. How did the pope then behave? 55. What was the consequence of his arrogant demands? 56. How may the Greek Church be divided? 57. Mention its three constituent parts. 58. Where

24 Republic of the Ionian Islands—Continent of Asia.

is the doctrine of the Greek church professed? 59. What Greek patriarchs can you mention?

60. What is the modern Greek language called? 61. Give some description of it. 62.* How is continental Greece usually divided? 63.* What islands can you mention as belonging to the kingdom? 64.* Describe the Isthmus of Corinth. 65.* Whence has the Morea derived its name, and by what appellation was it formerly known? 66. Copy out the table in Section Seventeen. 67.* Give the names and situation of the metropolis of Greece. 68.* Mention some particulars concerning it. 69. What do you remember about the Acropolis and Parthenon? 70. About the temple of Theseus and the Areopagus? 71. Give some account of the other remains of the ancient city. 72. What do you know about the Long-Walls? 73. About the rivers Ilissus and Cephissus? 74. About the Harbour of the Piræus? 75. Describe the town of Livadia. 76. Give some account of Messalonia. 77. And of Nauplia. 78. Where is Tripolitza? 79. Give some account of it. 80. Point out the situation of Hydra. 81. Mention what you know concerning it. 82. What character do its inhabitants bear?

REPUBLIC OF THE IONIAN ISLANDS.

83.* Whereabouts is the Republic of the Ionian Islands? 84.* By what other name is it known? 85.* What islands compose it? 86.* State its area and population. 87. Describe the situations of Corfu and Paxo. 88. Of Cerigo. 89. And of the other Ionian Islands. 90.* What is the established religion of the State? 91.* When, and by whom, was the constitution of the Ionian Republic drawn up? 92.* Give some account of it. 93. When did the Venetians obtain possession of these islands. 94. What language did they introduce into them? 95. How long did they remain under the sway of Venice? 96. What was done with them at the Congress of Vienna? 97. Copy out the table in Section Twenty-six.

98.* Which is the Northernmost of the Ionian Islands? 99.* Give some account of it. 100.* Where is the town of Corfu? 101.* What renders it important? 102.* Mention some particulars about it. 103. Name the largest of the Ionian Islands. 104. Where is Argostoli? 105. What can you state about the I. of Zante? 106. Give some account of its chief town.

CHAPTER XVI.

CONTINENT OF ASIA.

1.* Name the largest Quarter of the globe. 2.* How is the Continent of Asia bounded? 3.* For what is it remarkable? 4.* In what way has it been dignified? 5.* Where is M^t. Taurus, and whence does it take its rise? 6.* How is it divided? 7.* Describe the Eastern branch of it. 8.* And its Western branch. 9.* What range does M^t. Taurus join near the head of the R. Tigris? 10.* Where is the range of M^t. Zagros, or Aiagha Dag? 11.* Give some account of the ridge called Anti-Taurus. 12.* Where is M^t. Lokham? 13.* Describe its course. 14.* What chains of mountains run from it towards the South? 15.* What do you know about M^t. Caucasus? 16.* And M^t. Ararat? 17.* Describe the range called Elbern and Hindoo-Coosh. 18.* Where are the Himalah M^s., and why are they remarkable? 19.* Mention what you know about the range of the Imaus or Great Altai. 20.* What about the Sayansk or Yablennoy M^s.? 21. Copy out the table in Section Five.

- * Of what ancient countries is Asiatic Turkey composed? 23.* Ment-
its great provinces. 24.* And its chief cities. 25.* What can you
about Arabia? 26.* Name its principal cities. 27.* Give some ac-
of the kingdom of Persia. 28.* What cities can you mention in it?
Where is the kingdom of Cabul, and what great provinces does it con-
29.* Name some of its cities. 31.* What can you state about the
ion and government of India? 32.* What great cities do you remem-
it? 33.* What territories does Trans-Gangetic India include? 34.*
some of the principal cities in it. 35.* Where is China, and what
it? 36.* How is Mongolia bounded? 37.* Mention the chief cities
ina. 38.* What towns do you remember in Chinese Tartary? 39.*
some account of Independent Tartary and its chief towns. 40.* How
iatic Russia bounded, and by what other name is it known? 41.*
ion some of its principal towns. 42.* Where are the East India
Is, and by what collective appellation are they otherwise distinguished?
Which of these islands is the nearest to the continent? 44.* Name
of the others. 45.* To what nations do they belong? 46.* Where
e Philippine Islands, and under whose dominion are they? 47.* Men-
ome particulars about the Empire of Japan. 48.* Describe Poly-
49. Copy out the table from Section Eleven.
- * What rivers can you mention in Asia Minor? 51.* And in Syria?
What do you remember about the rivers of Arabia? 53.* What rivers
you name in Asiatic Russia? 54.* Where are the rivers Kur and
me? 55.* Where are the Euphrates and Tigris? 56.* Name the chief
of Persia. 57.* State some particulars about the Jihon and Sihon.
What about the R. Oural? 59.* Describe the course of the Indus.
Also that of the Ganges. 61.* What other rivers can you mention in
it? 62.* Give some account of the Burrampooter. 63.* What about
Irrawaddy, the Maygue, and the Cambodia, rivers? 64.* Mention
you know about the Whang-Hai. 65.* About the Yang-tse-kiang.
And about the Amoor. 67. Copy out the table from Section Sixteen.
- * What countries does the Black Sea wash? 69.* Give some account
e Caspian Sea. 70.* Is its water fresh? 71.* What do you remem-
about the Aral Sea? 72.* What about the Arabian Gulf? 73.* How
s Sea of Oman bounded, and by what other name is it known? 74.*
it gulfs can you mention on the coast of India? 75.* Where is the B.
engal? 76.* Where is the China Sea? 77.* What gulfs can you men-
in it? 78.* Where is the Java Sea? 79.* Where is the Yellow Sea?
Where is the Sea of Japan? 81.* Where is the Sea of Okhotsk?
- 2.* Describe the Strait of Enikale. 83.* Where is the St. of the Dar-
illes, 84.* What can you mention about the St. of Bab-el-Mandeb? 85.*
at about the St. of Bymbarack? 86.* Where is Palk's Strait? 87.*
cribe the St. of Malacca. 88.* Give the situations of the straits of
ka, Gaspar, and Caremata. 89.* Where is the St. of Sunda? 90.*
ere is Torres Strait? 91.* What about the Gilolo Passage, the Mo-
Passage, and the St. of Macassar? 92.* Where is the St. of Corea?
Where are the Straits of Matsmai and La Perouse? 94.* Describe
ring's Strait. 95.* Give the situations of C. Baba and C. Anamour.
What capes can you mention in Arabia? 97.* Where are C. Como-
and Romania Point? 98.* Where is C. Lopatka? 99.* What can
state about East Cape? 100.* Which is the Northernmost point of
it?

CHAPTER XVII.

TURKISH OR OTTOMAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.

1.* How is the Ottoman Empire in Asia bounded? 2.* State its area and population. 3.* What can you mention about the Turkish Dominion over its Eastern part. 4. What comparison can you draw between the Turkish power in Europe and Asia? 5. Have its Asiatic dominions lost anything in their extent? 6. Where has the line of demarcation between Turkey and Persia been drawn at different times? 7. What Power has now gained an ascendancy in these parts? 8. What can you mention about the Turkish power in Bagdad and Bassora? 9. In Kourdistan and Armenia? 10. In Arabia. 11.* Name the seven parts into which Asiatic Turkey is divided. 12.* How many Pachalics do these contain?

13.* What kind of a country is Asia Minor? 14.* What great mountain-range intersects it? 15.* Describe its general course. 16.* How is it divided? 17.* Mention what you know about its Eastern branch. 18.* And about its Western branch. 19.* Describe the range called Anti-Taurus. 20.* Where is M^t. Caucasus? 21.* Mention some particulars about it. 22.* And about M^t. Ararat. 23.* Where is Aiagha-Dag? 24.* What mountain-ranges does it join? 25.* How is the Western half of Syria intersected? 26.* What do you know about M^t. Lokham? 27.* What about M^t. Anzeyry and M^t. Lebanon? 28.* Describe M^t. Hermon and M^t. Carmel.

29.* What rivers of Asia Minor run into the Black Sea. 30.* Repeat what you know about the R. Sakaria. 31.* About the Kizil-Irmak. 32.* About the Jekil-Irmak. 33.* What great rivers can you mention in the Western part of Asia Minor? 34.* Give some account of them. 35.* Describe the rivers Syhoon and Jyhoon. 36.* What rivers can you name in Syria? 37.* Describe the course of the R. Aaszy. 38.* And that of the R. Liettani. 39.* Mention what you know about the R. Jordan, and the lakes through which it passes. 40.* By what other name is the R. Euphrates known? 41.* In what way does it rise? 42.* Between what provinces does it flow? 43.* What other river does it join, and by what name is the united stream known? 44.* What about the direction and length of the Euphrates? 45.* What tributaries has it? 46.* Point out the course of the R. Tigris. 47.* Give its length and tributaries.

48. What about C. Indjeh and C. Kerempe? 49. What headlands can you name on the W. coast of Asia Minor? 50. Where are C. Khelidonia and C. Anamour? 51. Name the chief capes of Syria. 52.* What seas wash the N. coast of Asia Minor? 53.* How do these communicate with the Archipelago? 54.* What gulfs of Asia Minor can you mention in the Euxine and Marmara? 55.* What sea washes the W. coast of Asia Minor? 56.* What gulfs can you name in it? 57.* What sea washes the coast of Syria and the S. coast of Asia Minor? 58.* What gulfs and bays can you name in it? 59. What inland seas can you mention in Asia Minor? 60. And what lakes in Syria? 61. And in Armenia? 62.* What can you mention about the religion and government of Asiatic Turkey? 63.* In what points do they differ from those of European Turkey? 64. How do you account for this difference? 65. What renders the Asiatic Turks so confident of their power? 66. Copy out the table from Section Sixteen.

67.* By what other name is Asia Minor known? 68.* How is it bounded? 69.* Mention its divisions. 70. Whence is the name *Anatolia* derived? 71. In what way is it frequently applied? 72. What particulars

a state about the appellation The Levant? 73. What about Roum? What about Karamania? 75. Whence was the last name derived? Give some account of Kutaya. 77. Where is Angora? 78. For what famous? 79. Mention some other particulars concerning it. 80. Can you state about Afum Karahissar? 81.* What other name has it? 82.* What is its rank with respect to the other cities of Asia? 83.* What is this owing to? 84.* Describe its appearance. 85.* Mention other particulars about it. 86. Give some account of Sivas. 87. Tokat. 88. Where is Trebisonde, and what about it? 89. Describe the political condition of Karamania. 90. Name its capital. 91. What has rendered it famous? 92. Give some account of it. 93. Where have the Seljukian Sultans reigned? 94. What are the Dervishes? What can you state about the extent and name of Itshili? 96. What of Adana? 97. Give some account of Tersoos.

By what other name is Syria known? 99.* How is it bounded? State its area. 101.* How is it divided? 102.* What appearance does it present? 103. What can you remember concerning the present and past state of Judaea? 104. In what respect are the ancient Prophecies concerning it fulfilled? 105. What about its ancient cities, its plains, and its mountains? 106. What about the ancient possessors of the land? 107. Can you mention about the Ammonites and Moab? 108. What about Edessa? 109. Who now inhabit the Philistian cities? 110. How is the prophecy fulfilled upon Gaza and Ascalon? 111. Upon Jerusalem, Samaria, and Lebanon? 112.* What other name has Aleppo? 113.* Describe its situation. 114.* What renders it important? 115.* How has it suffered from earthquakes? 116. Relate some further particulars concerning it. 117.* Where is Antioch? 118.* Describe its appearance. 119. What can you state about it? 120. How were the Crusaders connected with it? 121. Mention what you know about Iskenderoon. 122. What is meant by the name? 123. Where is the Pachalic of Tripoli? 124. What about the elders of Lebanon? 125. What superstitious veneration do the natives pay them, and why? 126. Describe the town of Tripoli. 127. What are the towns of Tortosa, Baniyas, and Ladkeyah? 128. Where do the Maronites and Druses dwell? 129. Point out the situation of Kesrouan. What is the creed of the Maronites? 131. Give some account of them. Where does their patriarch dwell? 133. What tract of country do the Maronites inhabit? 134. Of whom are they thought to be the descendants? Where does their prince dwell? 136. What is the creed of the Druses? What is their character? 138. Give some particulars about their history.

139.* Where is the Pachalic of Damascus, and what about it? 140.* What is its capital. 141.* Give some account of it. 142. How is it affected by the pilgrimage to Mecca? 143. Relate what you know about its manufacturers. 144.* Where is Jerusalem? 145.* By what other names is it known? 146.* Mention the various masters into whose hands it has fallen since the seventh century. 147.* In what light is it viewed by the Grand Seignior and the Turks? 148.* What further particulars can you mention about it? 149. Repeat what you know about the monks at Jerusalem. What is the great object of ambition with them? 151. Describe the architecture of Jerusalem. 152. Which is its most splendid edifice? 153. State some particulars about the Church of the Holy Sepulchre. 154. What can you mention about the ancient remains at Jerusalem? 155. Where is the Pachalic of Acre? 156. How is the Pachalic of Gaza connected with it? 157. How is the town of Acre situated? 158. Describe its appearance. 159. Mention some particulars in its history. 160. Where is Tabaria? 161.

Where is Soor? 162. What about it? 163. Where is Sayda? 164. Give some account of it. 165. What do you know about Beirout? 166. What about Baalbec? 167. Where is the town of Gaza? 168. What about it? 169. Describe Jaffa.

170.* Point out the situation of the I. of Cyprus. 171.* For what was it famed in ancient times? 172.* What is its present condition? 173.* Name its capital. 174. What can you state about the kingdom of Cyprus? 175. What nations have at different times been masters of it? 176. How is Nicosia situated? 177. Mention what you know about it. 178. What about Famagosta? 179. Give some account of Baffa.

180.* How is Armenia bounded? 181.* How is it divided? 182.* What can you state about Persian Armenia? 183.* What people inhabit its S. part? 184. What can you mention about the antiquity and character of the Armenians? 185. Where have they established themselves, and in what countries are they to be met with? 186. What is the general nature of the Armenian religion? 187. What is said about the antiquity of the Armenian Church? 188. When did it secede from the other establishments? 189. What religious theory did it then embrace? 190. What is the date of its schism? 191. How is it now governed? 192. What can you state about its chief patriarch? 193. What about the authority and privileges of the Armenian patriarchs generally? 194. How has persecution affected the Armenian Church? 195. In what way have its European members assisted it? 196. What is meant by the term Monophysites, and who are so called? 197. To whom is the appellation Eutychians applied, and whence is it derived? 198. What particulars can you mention in the Armenian creed? 199. Where is the town of Diarbekir? 200. Repeat what you remember concerning it. 201.* Where is Arzroum, and how is it situated? 202.* Describe its appearance and present state. 203. What do you know about Akalzike? 204. What about Kars? 205. Where is the town of Van? 206.* Describe it.

207.* How is Kourdistan bounded? 208.* Whence does it derive its name? 209.* What is the character of its inhabitants? 210.* Name its capital. 211. How are the Kourds regarded by travellers? 212. What language do they speak? 213. What forms of religion do they profess? 214. In what way are they governed? 215. Where is Mosul? 216. Describe its appearance. 217. To what species of manufacture has it given name? 218. Mention some other particulars about it. 219. What can you state about the town of Shahrassour?

220.* With what ancient country does Al Gezira correspond, and what is the meaning of the name? 221.* How is it bounded? 222.* Describe its present condition. 223.* To what does this appear owing? 224.* What can you state about its chief town? 225. How is it situated? 226. Describe its appearance. 227. From what is much of its importance derived? 228. Where is Racca? 229. Mention what you know about it.

230.* Why is Irak-Arabi so called? 231.* What rank does it hold amongst the Ottoman provinces? 232.* With what ancient country does it correspond, and how is it bounded? 233.* What is its nature generally, and how is it watered? 234.* Name its metropolis. 235.* How is it situated? 236.* What is its character? 237.* In what way is it visited? 238.* Whose tomb is said to be there? 239.* What can you state about its population? 240. When and by whom was Bagdad founded? 241. Under whom did it gain much of its splendour? 242. Mention some particulars in its history. 243. Describe its appearance. 244. Where is the city of Bassora? 245. How is it situated? 246. What gives it importance? 247. What particulars can you mention concerning it?

248.* Give the area and population of the whole Ottoman Empire in Europe and Asia. 249.* What can you mention about its former dominion in Africa? 250.* What hold has it now in this last continent? 251.* Name the countries there over which it extends its pretensions. 252.* State the area and population of the whole Ottoman Empire including these.

CHAPTER XVIII.

ARABIA.

1.* How is Arabia bounded? 2.* What can you mention about its peninsular shape? 3.* State its area in square miles, and as compared with other countries. 4.* What is its population? 5.* Give some account of Mt. Shehr. 6.* And of Mt. Haroun. 7.* What can you mention about the mountains of Om Shomar and St. Catharine? 8.* Are there any mountains in the N. part of Arabia, and what about them? 9.* What sort of a country is Arabia? 10.* Describe its chief river. 11.* What other rivers can you mention in it? 12. Give some account of the climate of Arabia. 13. And of the wind called Simoom. 14. What about the horses and camels of Arabia? 15.* Describe the Arabian Gulf. 16.* How is its N. part divided? 17.* What are the names of these two arms? 18.* What has rendered the Sea of Suez memorable? 19.* Describe the Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb. 20.* Where is the Sea of Bab-el-Mandeb? 21.* Mention what you know about the Persian Gulf. 22.* What bays does it contain? 23.* What about the Strait of Bumarack? 24.* Name the chief promontories of Arabia.

25.* What is the religion of the Arabs? 26.* What is their form of government? 27.* Does Arabia contain any separate monarchies? 28.* Mention the three chief ones. 29. How are the Arabs divided? 30. What can you state about the Imams? 31. What about the population and habits of the tribes? 32. What is their general character? 33. What do you remember about the Bedouins? 34.* Whence has Mahometanism derived its name? 35.* In what book are its principles contained? 36.* By what nations is it professed? 37.* What is the comparative number of Christians, Mahometans, and Pagans? 38.* Mention the chief article of the Mahometan creed. 39.* By what other general name are they distinguished? 40.* In what light do they view such as hold anything of number in the Divinity? 41.* Under what pretence do they exclude all other religions? 42.* What comparison do they institute between Moses, our Blessed Saviour, and Mahomet? 43.* What commission do they state to have been given to Mahomet? 44.* What is their notion about the Paraclete?

45. What do the Mahometans call their religion? 46. Whence is the name derived? 47. What is the origin of the name Mussulman? 48. Into what parts do the Mahometans distinguish their profession? 49. What do they comprehend under the profession of Faith? 50. What four points do they give relating to Practice? 51. What do they believe about genii? 52. What books of the Holy Scriptures do they receive? 53. How many prophets and apostles do they reckon? 54. What do they assert concerning the body after death? 55. What about the souls of "the faithful"? 56. And what about the souls of Infidels? 57. What does the Koran state concerning women? 58. Who are termed Houris, and what about them? 59. What do the Mahometans believe concerning predestination? 60. How did Mahomet make use of this doctrine? 61. What does the Koran enjoin upon the Mahometans? 62. What can you mention about the prayers and alms of the Mahometans? 63. What about their fasting? 64. What seasons

and days do they hold sacred? 65. What did Mahomet command concerning the pilgrimage to Mecca? 66. What other points of the Mahometan creed do you remember?

67. From what family and country did Mahomet spring? 68. Where and when was he born? 69. Where and how did he pass the earlier part of his life? 70. What was his general character? 71. In what way did he gain his knowledge? 72. Mention some particulars respecting his first convert. 73. How did he behave towards his relations? 74. How were his followers treated at Mecca? 75. In what way did the natives then receive Mahomet? 76. Where did he take refuge? 77. To what did his flight give rise? 78. In what way used the Arabs to compute time? 79. Who introduced a new epoch? 80. Give some account of this. 81. What do you remember about the Mahometan, as compared with the Christian, year? 82. What can you state about Mahomet and the people of Medina? 83. What did "the prophet" do after he was established there? 84. How did he announce his pretended revelations? 85. How did he train his followers, and distribute plunder? 86. In what way did he allure the Arabs to his standard? 87. Mention his first military expedition. 88. What particulars can you mention about his treatment of the Jews? 89. Describe his conquest of Mecca. 90. What was the consequence of this victory? 91. Give some account of Mahomet's last pilgrimage. 92. When and how did this impostor try to propagate his religion beyond the limits of Arabia? 93. How did the Persians listen to him? 94. Mention some particulars about his warfare with the emperor Heraclius. 95. What can you state about his personal vigour, and the fatigues he underwent? 96. To what did he ascribe his death? 97. How and when did he die? 98. Where was he interred? 99. What vulgar errors can you mention about his tomb?

100. By whom was Mahomet succeeded? 101. What about the Califs Omar and Ali? 102. How were Mahomet's followers divided after his death? 103. Who were styled Sunnites and Shiites? 104. What can you state about the creed of these two sects? 105. By what other appellations are they distinguished? 106. What nations belong to each sect? 107. How was it that the Turks conquered Arabia? 108. Where and when was Abdul-Wehhab born? 109. Where and how did he obtain his knowledge? 110. What did he attempt to do with his countrymen? 111. In what light did he view the Koran, and personal homage to Mahomet? 112. What Mahometan superstitions did he reject? 113. What did he prohibit? 114. What is the grand doctrine of his sect? 115. What superstitions do they practise? 116. In what light may their creed be viewed? 117. What resemblance does it bear to Mahometanism? 118. What influence did Abdul-Wehhab obtain amongst the Arabs? 119. What name did his followers assume, and of what power did they become possessed? 120. Of what places did they make themselves masters? 121. Where did they establish their capital? 122. What success did they meet with in reducing Arabia under their controul? 123. What later points in their history can you mention?

124.* How is Arabia usually divided? 125.* Describe Arabia Petraea. 126.* Also Arabia Felix. 127.* Also Arabia Deserta. 128. Copy out the table from Section Twenty-six. 129.* Where is Akaba? 130.* What can you state about it? 131.* Describe Medina. 132.* Name its port. 133. Where is the tomb of Mahomet? 134. Repeat what you know about it. 135.* Where is Mecca, and by what other name is it known? 136.* How is it situated? 137.* Give some account of it. 138.* For what is it celebrated? 139. What can you mention about the well Zemzem? 140. What is the Kaaba? 141. Give some account of it. 142. What is the Black Stone supposed to be in reality? 143. What do the Mahometans

concerning it? 144. What ceremony do the pilgrims go through at? 145. What about the present state of Mecca? 146. Are Christians allowed to enter it? 147. Where is Beled-el-Haram? 148. Where is Sana? 149.* Give some account of it? 150.* Describe the festival of Mocha. 151.* For what is it celebrated? 152. When was it first held? 153. Describe its appearance. 154. What towns can you name on the S. coast of Arabia? 155. Point out the situation of Muscat. Give some account of it, and its population. 156. What can you state about Oman? 157. Where is El-Katif? 158. What do you remember of Ul-Ahsa? 159. What about Deriah?

CHAPTER XIX.

KINGDOM OF PERSIA.

How is the kingdom of Persia bounded? 2.* In what way is the Persian otherwise applied? 3.* Have the limits of the kingdom of Persia varied? 4.* By what other names is it known? 5.* State its area and population. 6.* How is Persia traversed by mountains? 7.* With what mountains is the Elburz connected on the West? 8.* Point out its position. 9.* With what range are the Mts. of Lowristan connected on the East? 10.* What mountains do they join on the East? 11.* Describe the range named Brahoosick. 12.* What sort of a country is Persia? 13.* Are the Euphrates and Tigris properly reckoned Persian rivers? 14.* Describe the course of the Tigris. 15.* Also that of the R. Aras. 16.* What can you mention about the R. Kizil-Ozen? 17.* Where are the rivers Kerah, Karoon, and Jerake? 18.* What rivers of Persia run into the Persian Gulf? 19.* Describe the head-emirs. 20.* What Persian rivers run into the Indian Ocean? 21.* Mention what you know about the rivers Goorgaun and Attruck. 22.* Where is the R. Murghab, and what about it? 23.* Give the course of the R. Heermund. 24. What part of Persia is washed by the Caspian? 25. Give some account of the G. of Persia and the bays in it. 26. What do you know about the Sea of Oman? 27. Where is Sonmeany Bay? 28.* Mention the inland lakes of Persia. 29. Also its chief capes. 30.* What is the religion of the Persians? 31.* Are they attentive to their religious duties? 32.* Give some account of their treatment of the Zoroastrians. 33.* Where are these last to be met with? 34.* What is the nature of the Persian government? 35.* What can you state about the power of the Shah? 36. Who are called Sooffees? 37. What can you mention about the opinions of these people? 38. What objects are held out to inspire them? 39. What effect do these appear to produce upon their minds? 40. By what other names are the Sooffees known? 41. What can you state about the title Shekh? 42. What particulars can you mention of the history of the Sooffees? 43. By what various names are the Fire-worshippers known? 44. In what way do the Turks use the term Giaour? 45. How do the Persians apply it? 46. Of whom are the Guebres the followers? 47. What are their sentiments concerning him? 48. Give some account of their creed. 49. What has been surmised about the Christian origin of the Guebre faith? 50. What is the general character of the Guebres? 51. Whither did they retreat from their persecutors? 52. Mention some particulars about Baku. 53. What can you state about the history of Persia's despotism? 54. How are the wandering-tribes governed? 55.* Mention the provinces into which Persia is at present divided? 56.

Copy out the table from Section Fourteen. 57. What can you state about the province of Mekran? 58. What about the Balooches? 59. How were the Califs connected with Persia? 60. How did they lose it, and by whom was it afterwards conquered? 61. In what way were the Saracens connected with it? 62. What can you state about Ishmael-Sophi? 63. Who succeeded him? 64. Give some account of this last prince. 65. Whence did the Afghans come? 66. How did they visit Persia? 67. Who punished their atrocities? 68. What became of them subsequently?

69.* Name the present Persian metropolis. 70.* How is it situated? 71.* How long has it been the seat of government? 72.* Mention some other particulars concerning it. 73. What do you know about the Ark of Teheran? 74. Describe the general appearance of the city. 75. Why have the Persian monarchs chosen it as their residence? 76. Whither do they retire in the summer-months? 77. Give some account of Reshd. 78. Where is Tabriz, and how otherwise is its name written? 79. Who is said to have founded it? 80. Describe its former condition. 81. And its present state. 82.* Where is Ispahan, and what formerly made it celebrated? 83.* Mention some particulars concerning it. 84. What did Shah Abbas do for it? 85. When did the Afghans take it? 86. What appearance has it since presented? 87. Point out the situation of Shiraz. 88. Mention what you know about it. 89. Where is Busheer? 90. What renders it an important place? 91. Give some account of Gamberoon. 92. And of Kerman. 93. Describe the situation of Mushed. 94. What particulars can you state about it? 95. Where is Neshapore? 96. Whence has it derived much of its celebrity? 97. Repeat what you remember in its history.

KINGDOM OF CABUL OR AFGHANISTAN.

98.* By what other names is Cabul known? 99.* How is it bounded? 100.* Into what great divisions of the continent of Asia does it extend? 101.* State its area and population. 102.* What is the religion of the Afghans? 103.* What is the nature of their government? 104.* Describe the extent of the royal authority. 105.* How is the succession decided? 106. How do the Afghans behave towards people of a different religion from their own? 107. In what light do they look upon the Persians and Hindoos? 108. What can you mention about national feeling in Cabul? 109. What opinions are entertained concerning the power of the king? 110. Whence are the Afghans supposed to have derived their name and origin? 111. By what other appellations are they distinguished? 112. What empire did they found in the beginning of the eighteenth century? 113. Who overthrew it? 114. What can you state about the present Afghan monarchy?

115.* How is the kingdom of Cabul divided? 116.* Mention the most important of these divisions. 117.* What can you state about Baloochistan? 118. How are most of the Cabul provinces governed? 119. Copy out the table in Section Thirty-two. 120.* Give the situation of the Cabul metropolis. 121.* What renders it an important place? 122.* Mention some particulars concerning it. 123. Describe the city of Peshawur. 124. Where is the city of Kandahar? 125. What do you know about it? 126. Describe the capital of Baloochistan. 127.* Give the situation of the city of Cashmere. 128.* For what is it celebrated? 129.* Mention some further particulars about it. 130. Describe the Lake of Cashmere. 131. What can you state about the climate and fertility of the country?

CHAPTER XX.

INDIA OR HINDOOSTAN.

How is India bounded? 2.* State its area and population. 3.* What is of these acknowledge the British authority? 4.* In what extensive name India frequently used? 5.* What is meant by the term Proper? 6.* How do you define the Farther-India? 7. By what nations do the Brahmins distinguish India? 8. What does the name ostan signify? 9. How do the Mahometan writers employ it? 10. What is the Deccan? 11. What about The Carnatic? 12.* Where are the Himaleh Mountains? 13.* Whence have they derived name? 14.* What renders them remarkable? 15.* What mountains are the Western part of India? 16.* Describe them. 17.* Mention you know about the Vindhya M^s. 18.* What about the Sautpoora? 19.* Where are the Sechacull M^s? 20.* Describe the mountain of the Eastern Ghats. 21.* Where does the R. Indus rise, and by other name is it known? 22.* Describe its course. 23.* Mention its principal tributaries. 24.* Where is the Punjab, and whence has it derived name? 25.* What rivers flow through it into the Indus? 26.* Give the names of the rivers Ban, Bunwas, and Mhye. 27.* What can you state of the rivers Nerbuddah and Tapti? 28.* Describe the course of the Cauvery. 29.* Also that of the Pennar. 30.* What can you state of the R. Kistnah? 31.* And about the R. Godavery? 32.* Where are the rivers Mahanuddy, Braminy, Subunreeka, and Dummoodah? 33.* Where does the R. Ganges rise? 34.* Give its course and length. What tributaries does it receive, and how do the native Indians regard it? 35. Where do the Ganges and Jumna join? 37. Mention some of the tributaries of the Jumna. 38. What tributaries join the Ganges on its N. side? 39.* By what other names is the R. Burrampooter known? 40.* Describe its course. 41.* With what other great river has it been supposed connected, and how? 42. Where is the Bay of Bengal? 43. What straits lie between the mainland of India and the I. of Ceylon? What can you remember about the gulfs of Cambay and Cutch? 45. Mention what you know about the Rins. 46. Name the principal Capes of India. 47.* Name the two great religions of Hindoostan. 48.* What numerical proportion do their proselytes bear to each other? 49.* Mention what you know about the deity Brahm. 50.* What about Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva? In what way are they represented, and what about their Avatars? 52.* Give some account of Boodh. 53.* In what respect does the religion of the Buddhists differ from that of the Brahmins? 54. In what erroneous way do Europeans often apply the term Hindoo? 55. What minor deities can you mention among the Hindoos? 56. In what way do these frequently derive their sanctity? 57. What indicates a Brahminical place of worship? 58. What is taught by the followers of Buddha? 59. Whom do they worship? 60. What was Buddha's office during his incarnation? 61. What do you remember about the antiquity and number of the Buddhists? 62. How are their temples distinguished? 63. What can you state about the Jains and their temples? 64. Who is at the head of the Hindoo religion? 65. What rank do the Brahmins hold? 66. How are the Hindoos divided? 67. How many Castes are there, and what can you mention about them generally? 68. Describe

the First Caste. 69. Also the Second Caste. 70. Also the Third Caste. 71. Also the Fourth Caste. 72. What particulars can you mention about the change of Caste? 73. What do the Pundits say upon the subject? 74. Who are called Pundits? 75. What happens to Hindoos who violate the rules of Caste? 76. What can you mention about the Pariars and Chandalas? 77. What religious character do the modern Mahometans of India bear? 78. What effect have they been able to produce upon the Hindoos? 79. How has this happened? 80. How many native Christians are there in Hindoostan? 81. Under what circumstances do they exist, and in what light are they looked upon by the idolatrous Hindoos? 82. How may this be accounted for?

83.* What title did the sovereign of India formerly bear? 84.* When did his power decline and terminate? 85.* What can you mention about the last prince of that dynasty? 86.* Upon whom are he and his family dependant? 87.* What about the supremacy of the British government in India? 88.* In what way must the government of Hindoostan now be viewed? 89. What remarkable fact can you state with respect to our enormous empire in India? 90. What has been done to prevent its increase? 91. What are the great features of its history? 92. What was its extent in the year 1639? 93. Of what parts does the present political system of Hindoostan consist? 94. Name its independent states. 95. Mention the Indian settlements belonging to the Portuguese. 96. To the French. 97. To the Dutch and Danes. 98. What is the character of the native governments of Hindoostan? 99. Describe their internal constitution. 100. What is the consequence of this? 101. For what are the people chiefly solicitous? 102. What remarkable facts can you mention about their notions of patriotism and civil liberty? 103. Copy out the table from Section Twenty-three.

104.* Mention the names by which the metropolis of the British possessions in India is known. 105.* How is it situated? 106.* What renders it important? 107.* State its population. 108. When did the English found a factory at Calcutta, and what was then the appearance of the city? 109. Give the history of Fort William. 110. What do you remember about the Black Hole? 111. Describe the present appearance of Calcutta. 112.* Where is Madras, and what do the natives call it? 113.* Mention some particulars about it. 114.* What about the presidency of Madras? 115. When did the English first settle here? 116. Give some account of P^r. George. 117. What do you remember about Chenappapatam? 118. What was the original extent of British territory here? 119. What points do you remember in its history? 120.* Of what province and presidency is Madras the capital? 121.* Describe its situation. 122.* Mention some farther particulars concerning it. 123. To whom does Bombay owe its origin? 124. How did it fall into the hands of the British? 125. What do you know about its fortifications? 126. What about the I. of Bombay? 127. And what about its docks?

128.* Where is Delhi, and of what province is it the capital? 129.* Of what empire was it once the metropolis? 130.* State its former extent. 131.* Give its present extent and population. 132.* What else can you mention about it? 133. What can you state about the situation of Delhi? 134. Give its ancient name. 135. State some particulars in its history. 136. What opinion is still prevalent in India respecting Delhi? 137. What is the consequence of this? 138. What can you mention about the coin and insignia of the country? 139. What about the honours conferred by the Delhi Emperor? 140. What splendid mosque can you describe in Delhi? 141. Where is the I. of Ceylon, and how is it separated from the mainland of India? 142. State its area and population. 143. By what other names

own? 144. By what appellations are its inhabitants distinguished? What can you mention about Adam's Bridge? 146. Describe Adam's 147. Where is Colombo, and what about it? 148. Where are Mo and Jaffnapatam? 149. Give some account of Candi and the And.

CHAPTER XXI.

TRANS-GANGETIC INDIA.

By what other name is Trans-Gangetic India known? 2.* What States it contain? 3. Describe the mountain-range of the Garrows. 4. What the ridge called Mugg? 5. What other ranges of mountains can you on in Trans-Gangetic India? 6.* Give the course of the R. Irrawaddy. What can you state about the rivers Thaluayn and Maygue? 8.* Describe the course of the Cambodia R. 9.* By what other names is it known? What part of Trans-Gangetic India is washed by the B. of Bengal? How is this Bay connected with the China Sea? 12. Where is the Martaban? 13. Give the limits of the China Sea. 14. Name the capes of Trans-Gangetic India. 15.* How is the Birman Empire bounded? 16.* By what other name known? 17.* State its area and population. 18.* What has been consequence of the insult lately offered by the Birnese to the British? 19.* What is the religion of the Birnese? 20.* Mention some of their faith. 21.* Whence is it that they pay such adoration to white elephant? 22.* What is the form of government in the Birman Empire? 23.* Mention some of its characteristics. 24. Draw some comparison between the Birnese and the Brahminical Hindoos. 25. What can state about the temples and household gods of the Birnese? 26. In what light do they consider gold? 27. What is the order of precedence in it? 28. By what officers of state is the white elephant attended? 29. Where does he reside? 30. Describe his dwelling. 31. What other particulars do you remember concerning him? 32. What resemblance is there between the courts of Ava and Pekin? 33. What is the general character of the former? 34. What can you mention about the extent of the Birman Empire? 35. How was it formerly divided? 36. Mention some particulars about the wars betwixt Ava and Pegu. 37. How is Ava Proper situated? 38. Copy out the table in Section Ten. 39.* Where is Umrappoora situated, and by what other names is it known? 40.* Whence does it derive its importance? 41.* When was it founded? 42.* What other particulars can you mention about it? 43.* What about the old city of Ava? 44. Describe Rangoon. 45. Where is the city of Pegu? 46. What circumstances can you mention concerning it? 47. By what name are its inhabitants and their country distinguished by other nations. 48.* How is the kingdom of Siam bounded? 49.* State its area and population. 50.* What is the religion of the Siamese? 51.* What is the character of their government? 52.* In what way is their army levied and supported? 53.* Name the capital of the kingdom. 54. What appearance does the kingdom of Siam present? 55. What resemblance does it bear to Egypt? 56. By what other names are the Siamese known? 57. What particulars can you mention in the history of Siam? 58. How is the metropolis of the kingdom situated? 59. Describe its appearance. 60. By what other appellations is it distinguished? 61.* How is the Empire of Annam bounded? 62.* Whence has it derived its name? 63.* What can you mention about its component parts? 64.* Name the States which belong to it. 65.* Give the area and population.

lation of the whole empire. 66.* What religions are professed in it? 67.* What is the nature of its government? 68. What portions of Annam are said to have once belonged to China? 69. When and how did China lose them? 70. What can you state about the name Nuoe-Annam? 71. What about the government of Annam? 72. Who was the emperor of Annam formerly? 73. How is Cambodia bounded? 74. In what other way is the name written? 75. What well-known product comes thence? 76. What can you state about the intercourse of Cambodia with other countries? 77. Describe its capital. 78. How is Laos bounded? 79. By what great river is it traversed? 80. Describe its capital. 81. Give some account of Tsiompa and its chief town. 82. How is Cochin-China bounded? 83. What is its shape? 84. Is its king powerful? 85. Give some particulars about its government. 86. And about its religion. 87. What is the character of its inhabitants? 88. In what way have China and Cochin-China been connected? 89. Mention the chief harbours of Cochin-China. 90. How is Tonkin bounded? 91. Of what empire did it originally form a part? 92. Repeat what you know about its history. 93. Give some account of its government. 94. What forms of religion are professed by the Tonkinese? 95. Describe their capital.

96.* How is the peninsula of Malacca bounded? 97.* What do you know about the religion and government of the Malays? 98. To what sect do they belong? 99. What is their character, and by what other names are they known? 100. What can you state about their origin? 101. How has Malacca been affected by the Siamese and Birman power? 102. In what way is the whole peninsula now governed? 103. What can you state about the executive authority there generally? 104. What about those parts which are under British influence? 105. Where is the St. of Malacca? 106. Where is Pulo Penang, and by what other name is it known? 107. To whom does it belong? 108. Give its history. 109. Where is the town of Malacca? 110. Mention what you know about it. 111. Point out the situation of Singapore. 112. When was the town of Singapore founded? 113. Whence does it derive its importance? 114. Repeat some particulars concerning it. 115. Of what nations is its population composed, and what is its amount?

AUSTRALASIA.

116.* Where is Australasia? 117.* Of what does it consist? 118.* Name its chief islands. 119.* In what way are they sometimes collectively distinguished? 120.* Name the nearest to Asia. 121.* How is it separated from it, and what is its general direction? 122.* What is the religion of its inhabitants? 123.* How are they governed? 124.* Mention its chief towns. 125. By what other names is Sumatra known? 126. Mention some of its political divisions. 127. What can you state about the king of Bantam? 128. What about the British possessions in Sumatra? 129. What sovereignty do the Dutch claim in Sumatra? 130. Give some account of the forms of government in Sumatra. 131. And of the state of religion there.

132.* By what other name is Borneo known, and what is its size? 133.* How is it situated. 134.* What is the religion of the inhabitants? 135.* How is it governed? 136.* What foreigners have settled there? 137. What can you state about the figure of Borneo? 138. By what names are its inhabitants known, and what about their antiquity? 139. Name the Dutch factories on the island. 140. What can you mention concerning them? 141. Describe the capital of Borneo. 142. Give some account of the I. of Billiton. 143. Also of the I. of Banka.

- 1.* Where is the I. of Celebes? 145. What do you remember about it? 146.* To what Strait has it given name? 147. By what other name is Celebes known? 148. What is its figure? 149. Name its chief island. 150. Mention some of the States into which it is divided. 151. What is the religion of the natives? 152. What can you state about the customs of the Portuguese here? 153. And about those of the Dutch? Where is the I. of Palawan, and what about it? 155. Point out the situation of the Sooloo Archipelago. 156. Mention its chief island, and the number of the others. 157. What do you know about their sovereignty? 158. And the religion professed by the natives? 159. How do the Spanish colonists near them agree?
- 0.* Where is the group of the Philippine Islands? 161.* By what names are they known, and why so? 162.* Name the principal islands. 163.* What others do you remember? 164.* To whom are these islands subject? 165.* Which is the capital town of the group? 166. What does this town give to the whole group? 167. Give some particulars of the Spanish dominion over them. 168. Give some account of their history. 169. And of their conquest by the Spaniards. 170. Did the Spaniards ever gain possession of Manila, and when? 171. What is the state of Spanish power in the Philippines? 172. Mention what you know of Manila.
- 13.* In what way is the name of Molucca Islands understood in its native sense? 174.* What islands are thus included in it? 175.* Where is the Molucca Passage? 176. Which are the Molucca Islands in the more confined sense of the term? 177. Which are the Spice Islands? To whom have they been subject at various times? 179. What do you know about the Mahometan religion in them? 180. What European nations have at various times had dominion over them? 181. Where is the Dutch capital in them? 182.* Where is Papua or New Guinea? 183.* What can you state about its extent and figure? 184.* How is it separated from Australia? 185.* By what names are the inhabitants known? 186.* Give some description of them. 187.* What is their religion? 188. When and by whom was New Guinea discovered? 189. Describe the appearance of its inhabitants. 190. What do you know about its manners and character? 191. What islands can you mention to the E. of New Guinea? 192. Where are the Peloo, the Caroline, and the Phoenix Islands?
- 193.* Give the situation of the I. of Java. 194.* Where are the Sundaes, and whence are they so named? 195.* To whom does Java belong? 196.* What do you recollect about the religion of the Javanese? 197.* What can you state about Batavia? 198.* What other cities can you mention in Java? 199. How was Java originally divided? 200. Name the governments into which it is now divided. 201. Describe the Dutch system of governing the country. 202. How came the English to attack the island? 203. What was the consequence of that attack, and who now possess Java? 204. What can you state respecting the Javanese native government? 205. Describe the town of Batavia. 206. What islands can you mention between Java and New Guinea? 207. Give some account of their inhabitants. 208. Mention what you know about the I. of Timor. 209.* What other name has Australia? 210.* Describe its situation. 211.* What is its size, and what was it long supposed to be? 212.* Where is New South Wales? 213.* Mention what you know about the interior of Australia. 214.* What about its coast. 215.* Name its chief rivers. 216.* Give some account of its natives. 217. Where did Great Britain formerly banish her felons? 218. Where does she now send them? 219.

What place in Australia was first fixed on for this purpose? 220. When was this, and what other place was preferred? 221. Describe the Blue Mountains. 222. How is the territory of the colony divided? 223. Describe its capital. 224. Mention its other chief towns. 225. What other British settlements can you mention in Australia? 226. Where is Van Diemen's Land? 227. To whom does it belong? 228. Mention some of its harbours. 229. Describe its capital. 230. Name its other chief towns. 231. Give the situation of New Zealand. 232. Mention its component parts. 233. What can you state respecting its inhabitants?

POLYNESIA.

234.* What does the name of Polynesia signify? 235.* To what islands is it strictly applied? 236.* What other islands does it include in its more extensive application? 237.* Mention the principal groups of Polynesia. 238.* Where is Otaheite? 239.* What about the Sandwich Islands? 240.* Where is Owhyee, and what occurred there? 241. What is the nature of all these islands? 242. Give some account of their inhabitants? 243. What can you state about their religion? 244. To whom do these islands belong?

CHAPTER XXII.

RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.

1.* How is Asiatic Russia bounded? 2.* State its area and population. 3.* In what ways is the name Siberia used? 4. What is the general character of Asiatic Russia? 5. In what zone is much of its territory? 6. What is the consequence of its remote situation? 7. What can you mention about the approaches to it by sea? 8.* Mention some characteristic features of the mountains of Asiatic Russia. 9.* Describe the great range of Sayansk or Yablonnoy. 10.* Where are the Oural M.? 11.* Where is the great range of the Caucasus? 12.* What is the general character of the rivers of Asiatic Russia? 13.* Where do most of them rise and terminate? 14.* Give some account of the R. Ob and its tributaries. 15.* And of the R. Enisei. 16.* What other rivers can you mention in the N. E. part of the country? 17.* Describe the R. Volga. 18.* And also the R. Oural. 19. Name the chief gulfs of Asiatic Russia. 20. What other inland sea has it besides the Caspian? 21. Mention its principal capes.

22.* How is Asiatic Russia divided? 23.* What religion is professed there? 24.* What do you remember about its inhabitants? 25.* For what purpose does the Russian government use it? 26. What progress has Christianity made in Asiatic Russia? 27. What religion is generally diffused over it? 28. What superstitions are peculiar to Siberia? 29. How was it inhabited prior to its conquest by the Russians? 30. How do the Russians keep it in subjection? 31. In what way do they seek to conciliate the inhabitants? 32. Where do the Samoedi dwell? 33. Where are the Tungousis cantoned? 34. What other hunting tribes can you name near them? 35. What tribes inhabit the S. part of the country? 36. Copy out the table from Section Eleven.

37.* Where is Tobolsk? 38.* What renders it important? 39.* When was it founded? 40.* Mention some other particulars concerning it. 41. Point out the situation of Irkoutsk. 42. Give some account of it. 43. Describe Okotsk. 44. Where are the Kurile Islands, and what about them? 45. Give the situation of Kiachta. 46. Why is it worthy of note? 47.

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on what else you know about it? 48.* Where is Astrakhan? 49.* What is it remarkable? 50.* Repeat what you remember about it. What did Peter the Great design concerning it? 52. Of what nations is present population consist? 53. Of what kingdom was it formerly a part? 54. How and when did it cease to be so? 55. Where is it? 56. Give some description of it.

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

* In what way is the name Tartary applied in its most extended sense? How is this enormous country inhabited? 59.* Have its natives any? 60.* How is it divided? 61.* Give the limits of Independent Tartary? 62.* State its area and population? 63.* What can you mention about its boundary on the side of India and China? 64.* What territories are frequently included in it? 65.* Why is Independent Tartary so called? 66.* What sort of a country is it? 67.* What great ranges do its mountains connect? 68.* Where are the mountains of Beloo-Tag and Ala-Tau? 69.* What about the Ala-Tau? 70.* Describe the mountain called The Rampart of Gog and Magog? 71.* What do you remember about the rivers of Independent Tartary? 72.* Give the course of the Ob. 73.* Also that of the Amoo. 74. Where is the R. Oural? Where is the R. Irtysh, and what about it? 76. What other rivers can you name in Independent Tartary? 77. Give some account of the Aral Sea. 78. What do you remember about the Caspian Sea? 79. Mention some of the smaller lakes in Independent Tartary. 80. What are termed the Deserts? 81.* What religion do the Tartars profess? 82.* To what sect do they belong, and in what way are they guided by the Koran? 83.* What is the form of their government? 84.* What particulars can you mention concerning it? 85.* Name some of the chief tribes of Independent Tartary. By what other names is it known? 87. Whence has it derived these? Repeat what you know about the origin of the name Tartar. 89. What are to be their proper appellations, and to what race do they belong? When do the Tartars first figure in history? 91. With what nation did they first unite? 92. What was the consequence of this union to them? Who was Tamerlane? 94. Mention some points in his history. 95. What do you remember about his successors? 96. To what state is the country now reduced? 97. Who are now the most important people in it? Give some account of their invasion and present dominions. 99. What Independent Tartar tribes can you name? 100. What is their condition? 101.* What other name has Bokhara, and what is said to be the significance of it? 102.* Where is it situated, and what about it? 103.* Describe the capital. 104. What appearance does it present? 105. What is the character of its inhabitants? 106. Of what nations is its population composed? 107. Mention some points in its history. 108.* Give the situation of Samarcand. 109.* For what is it famous? 110.* What particulars can you mention concerning it? 111. Give some account of the court of Tamerlane here. 112. Name the two chief towns of Turkestan. 113. Describe the Irtysh. 114. Where do the Kirgees dwell? 115. How are they divided? 116. What is their mode of life? 117. Give some account of them. 118. In what way are they connected with Russia?

CHAPTER XXIII.

CHINESE EMPIRE.

1.* Name the component parts of the Chinese Empire. 2.* By what other appellation is Chinese Tartary known, and what is its character? 3.* How is it bounded? 4.* State its area and population. 5.* Is it a mountainous country? 6.* How is its N. frontier formed? 7.* What can you state about the range of the Great Altai M.? 8.* What about the S. part of Chinese Tartary? 9.* Describe the chief river of Mongolia. 10. What others can you mention in it? 11. What great rivers have their sources in it? 12. Mention the chief lakes of Chinese Tartary. 13. Describe the Desert of Shamo. 14. Where is the Sea of Japan? 15. Where is the Yellow Sea, and what gulfs does it contain? 16. Name the chief capes of Mongolia.

17.* What is the religion of the Mogul Tartars? 18.* What superstitious veneration do they entertain for their Lamas? 19.* What can you state about the power of the Mogul princes? 20.* To whom are they subject? 21.* What is the character of this subjection? 22.* Describe the authority of the Khans. 23. How were the Mongols formerly divided? 24. What influence did Jenghiz Khan possess over them? 25. How were they divided after his death? 26. Give some account of the Doerben-Oiret. 27. How came the Mongols to be subject to China? 28. What is their present political condition? 29. What renders the conquests of the Mongols important? 30. With what other people were they connected? 31. By what other appellation have they been distinguished? 32. When did they change it? 33. What tribes can you mention amongst them? 34. What was their political condition in the ninth century? 35. Give the history of Jenghiz Khan. 36. What countries did he invade? 37. Who was Oktay? 38. What particulars can you mention in his history? 39. What countries did he and his generals ravage? 40. Did they invade Asia Minor and Syria? 41. What was the consequence of Oktay's death, and by whom was he succeeded? 42. What did Menku do? 43. What put an end to the Mongolian sovereignty? 44. Into what states did it subsequently become divided? 45. What conqueror succeeded Oktay? 46. To what territories was the name of the Mogul Empire applied? 47. What does this appellation signify in its more restricted sense? 48. What Mongol chief effected the conquest of Hindoostan? 49. Give some particulars in his history. 50. What can you state about the emperors Acbar and Aurungzebe?

51.* How is the Mongol nation subdivided? 52.* What is their mode of life? 53.* Give some account of their capital city. 54.* What about Karakum? 55. Describe the I. of Sagalin. 56. By what people is it inhabited? 57. Where is Corea, and what about it? 58. Where do the Songar Calmucks dwell? 59. Mention what you know about Little Bukaria. 60. Where is Little Tibet? 61. Give some account of it. 62. Mention its chief towns.

63.* Where is Tibet? 64.* Upon what countries does it touch? 65.* To whom is it subject? 66.* Name its capital. 67. What can you state about the Viceroy of Tibet? 68. Who are styled Lamas, and what doctrine do they reject? 69. Of whom do they consider themselves to be the adherents? 70. What can you state about this personage? 71. Where does the Grand Lama reside? 72. Mention what you know about his pretended incarnation. 73. In what way does the religion of the Tibetians differ from

that of the Brahminical Hindoos? 74. In what capacity is the Grand Lama regarded? 75. How is his power neutralized by the emperor of China? 76. Where is Lassa, and by what other names is it known? 77. For what is it remarkable? 78. Mention some particulars concerning it. 79. What can you mention about the personal residence of the Grand Lama?

80.* How is China Proper bounded? 81.* State its area and population. 82.* What can you mention about the exaggerated statement of its population? 83.* Give the superficial extent and population of the whole Chinese Empire. 84. What do you remember about the statements of the Chinese respecting their population? 85. Mention the various names by which China is known. 86. To what antiquity do the Chinese pretend? 87. Whence do they appear to have obtained these fabulous accounts. 88. What is the most interesting portion of their history? 89. How was Jenghiz Khan connected with China, and what did he purpose respecting it? 90. By whom were his successors supplanted? 91. What interesting particulars do you remember concerning the Mantchoo-Tartars?

92.* Describe the Northernmost range of mountains in China. 93.* Give some account of the chain called Nan-ling. 94.* In what way is it divided? 95.* Describe these divisions. 96. What other high ridges can you mention in China? 97.* Name the two principal rivers of China. 98.* Where do they rise and terminate? 99.* Describe the course of the Hoang-Ho. 100.* And also that of the Yang-tse-kiang. 101. Name the chief tributaries of the Yang-tse-kiang. 102. What other rivers can you mention in China? 103. Give some account of its principal lakes. 104. What can you state respecting its canals?

105.* What religion is established in China? 106.* Mention the three systems of religion professed there. 107.* What is the form of government in China? 108.* Define the power of the Chinese Emperor. 109.* What titles does he take? 110.* What homage is paid him? 111. When did Confucius flourish? 112. What name did he obtain? 113. How do the Chinese regard his doctrines? 114. What general system did he pursue? 115. What moral speculations did he avoid? 116. What great principles did he maintain concerning the Deity? 117. And what did he teach concerning the human body? 118. What distance did he place between the Deity and man? 119. What did he propagate concerning moral duties? 120. Give his notion about the essence of the Deity. 121. What can you state about his worship of the Host of Heaven? 122. Who are the Taotze? 123. Give some account of their doctrines. 124. What do you know about their priests? 125. Mention what you remember about the religion of Fo.

126. What prerogatives does the Emperor of China possess? 127. How is he assisted in his office? 128. To whom are the affairs of government entrusted? 129. Is there any hereditary nobility in China? 130. What is the road to distinction there? 131. Who are styled Mandarins? 132. Give some account of their office and authority. 133. What grade in literary eminence does China hold amongst the nations of the world? 134. To what does this appear owing? 135. In what way does its art of writing seem to prove this? 136. Mention what you know about its mode of writing. 137. What about its printing? 138. Copy out the table from Section Thirty-four.

139.* When and why was the Great Wall of China built? 140.* Give its length and direction. 141. Describe its appearance. 142.* Where is Peking situated? 143.* Why is it remarkable? 144.* Mention some particulars concerning it. 145. What does the name Peking signify? 146. Why was it so called? 147. By what other name is it known? 148. Describe its appearance. 149. Also that of the imperial palace. 150.* Where

is Nankin? 151.* What does its name mean, and why was it formerly celebrated? 152.* Give some description of it. 153. By what other name is it known? 154. What is said to have been its former condition? 155. What is its present state? 156. Describe its Porcelain Tower.

157.* By what other name is Canton known, and where is it situated? 158.* For what is it remarkable? 159.* What can you state about the tea-trade there? 160.* Who compose the Hong-Council? 161.* Give the population of Canton. 162. What can you remember about the commencement of Europeans trading with Canton? 163. What particulars can you mention about this trade? 164. Describe the different trading-factories there. 165. What can you mention about the appearance of Canton? 166. What else do you remember concerning it? 167. Where is the I. of Macao, and for what is it remarkable? 168. Give the history of the Portuguese settlement there. 169. Describe its importance and appearance. 170. Mention what you know about the I. of Hainan. 171. Describe the I. of Formosa. 172. What Chinese islands lie to the E. of the latter?

EMPIRE OF JAPAN.

173.* Point out the situation of the Japanese Empire. 174.* Of what islands is it composed? 175.* State its area and population. 176.* By what other names is it known? 177. What point can you mention in the Japanese character? 178. When and by whom was their empire discovered? 179. Give some account of the first Portuguese settlements there. 180. And likewise of those of the Dutch. 181.* Describe the general aspect of the Japanese Islands. 182.* How is Nipon traversed? 183.* What can you state about the Mountains of Fusi? 184.* What about the other mountains in Nipon? 185. What is the character of the Japanese rivers? 186. Mention the chief of them. 187. Describe the L. of Oitz. 188. What about the Japanese canals? 189.* Give the names and situations of the chief Straits in Japan. 190.* Also of its principal Gulfs. 191.* Mention the chief Capes in Nipon.

192.* What is the religion of the Japanese? 193.* Name its two sects. 194.* What can you state about the Sinto? 195.* What about the Budsdo? 196. Mention some particulars in the Sinto creed. 197. Describe their temples. 198. Who is the Daii, and what about the inferior priests? 199. Give some account of the sect named Shuto. 200.* Who was formerly the supreme ruler in Japan? 201.* In what light did his subjects view him? 202.* How came he to lose his power? 203.* In what way is he still regarded? 204.* Who is the Cubo-Sama? 205. What do you know about the court of the Daii? 206. And about the homage paid to him? 207. Where does he reside? 208. What can you state about the court and authority of the Cubo-Sama? 209. What about the hereditary princes and chiefs?

210.* Name the largest of the Japanese Islands. 211.* Mention its capital and the metropolis of the whole empire. 212.* Where is it situated? 213.* What other particulars can you mention about it? 214. Describe the appearance of Jedo. 215.* Where is Meaco? 216.* Why is it celebrated? 217.* Give some description of it. 218. By what other name is the I. of Jesso known? 219. Describe its situation. 220. What do you remember about its chief town? 221. What about the Kurile Islands? 222. Mention what you know about the I. of Sikoke. 223. Where is the I. of Kiusiu? 224. By what other name is it known? 225. What can you mention about it in connexion with the Dutch? 226. Describe its capital. 227. Give some account of the I. of Fatsisio.

CHAPTER XXIV.

CONTINENT OF AFRICA.

1.* How is Africa bounded? 2.* What is its size compared with that of Europe? 3.* What renders it less important? 4.* What can you state about its cultivation? 5.* What are understood by the Oases of Africa? 6.* Give some account of M^t. Atlas. 7.* Describe the Desert of Sahara. 8.* What do you remember about the range of mountains called the Black Harutsh? 9.* How is the Valley of the Nile enclosed? 10.* What can you state about the adjacent high land? 11.* Where are the M^t. of the Moon? 12.* What is their supposed extent, and whence have they derived their name? 13.* What mountains can you mention in the S. E. parts of Africa? 14. Copy out the table in Section Four.

15.* Where is the Empire of Morocco, and of what parts is it composed? 16.* Name its chief cities. 17.* Give the situation and chief cities of the State of Algiers. 18.* Also those of Tunis. 19.* Also those of Tripoli. 20.* What do you know about Barca? 21.* What can you mention about the limits and extent of Egypt? 22.* Name its subdivisions. 23.* And its principal cities. 24.* Describe the situation and chief towns of Nubia. 25.* Also those of Abyssinia. 26.* Also those of Kordofan, Dar-Fur, and Waday. 27.* What states and cities can you mention round L. Tchad? 28.* Where is Howsa? 29.* Name some of its cities. 30.* What can you state about Soudan? 31.* Give some account of Senegambia. 32.* Where is Sierra Leone, and to whom does it belong? 33.* Where is the Coast of Guinea, and how is it divided? 34.* Give the situation of Lower Guinea. 35.* Of what States is it composed?

36.* Describe the colony of The Cape of Good Hope. 37.* To whom does it belong? 38.* Where do the Hottentots dwell? 39.* What tribes dwell to the N. of it? 40.* Where do the Kaffers, Tambookies, and Mambookies, dwell? 41.* Where is Mocaranga, and by what other name is it known? 42.* Name the states which compose it. 43.* What do you remember about Mozambique? 44.* What about Zanzibar and Ajan? 45.* Give some account of the Comoro Isles. 46.* And of the Seychelles. 47.* Where is Socotra? 48.* Where are Bourbon, Mauritius, and Roderigue, and what about them? 49.* What islands can you mention off the Coast of Guinea? 50.* To whom do they belong? 51.* Where are the Cape Verde Islands? 52.* Where are the Canary I^s.? 53.* Where are the Madeiras and Azores? 54.* To what Powers do these four last groups belong? 55. Copy out the table from Section Thirteen.

56.* What rivers can you name in Morocco? 57.* And what rivers in Algiers? 58.* Give the course of the R. Mejjardah. 59.* Describe the sources of the R. Nile. 60.* What can you state about the Blue Nile and White Nile? 61.* Where do their waters meet, and what about the united stream? 62.* Give some account of the R. Tacazze. 63.* And of the R. Djyr. 64.* Where does the R. Nigir rise, and by what other names is it known? 65.* Give some account of its course. 66.* And of its supposed connexion with L. Tchad and the R. Nile. 67.* What rivers can you mention in the Westernmost part of Africa? 68.* Repeat what you know about the R. Zahir. 69.* What great rivers are near it? 70.* Describe the Orange R. 71.* What rivers can you mention on the E. coast of Africa? 72. Copy out the table from Section Eighteen.

73.* What can you state about the Gulfs of Sidra and Cabes? 74.* Where is the Gulf of Guinea, and what Bays does it contain? 75.* Where is Sofala Bay? 76.* Where is the Sea of Bab-el-Mandeb? 77.* Describe the Red Sea. 78.* Name the chief inland seas of Africa. 79.* Describe the Strait of Gibraltar. 80.* Also the Mozambique Channel. 81.* Where is the Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb? 82.* Mention the chief capes of Africa in the Mediterranean. 83.* Where is C. Sparte? 84.* What promontories can you name on the Western coast of the continent? 85.* And on the Coast of Guinea? 86.* What can you state about the C. of Good Hope and C. Agulhas? 87.* What capes can you name on the Eastern coast of Africa?

CHAPTER XXV.

THE BARBARY STATES.

1.* In what way is the appellation Barbary used? 2.* Mention the States to which it is applied. 3.* Whence is the name derived? 4.* Give some account of the Berbers. 5.* Whence have the Moors derived their name? 6.* Where do they dwell? 7.* What are their habits of life? 8.* In what way are the Berbers governed? 9.* In what way do they obey the Moors? 10.* What can you mention about the Arabs of Barbary? 11.* In what way are they governed? 12.* How are the Jews treated in Barbary?

13.* Where is M^t. Atlas, and what is its altitude? 14.* Describe its course. 15.* Through what countries does it pass? 16.* What legend is connected with it in ancient fable? 17.* To what ocean has it given name? 18.* Where is Gebel Tedla? 19.* What can you state about Apes' Hill? 20.* What mountains can you mention in Algiers? 21.* Describe the Souan^e M^t. 22.* Also the Soudah M^t., and the continuation of them. 23.* Name those rivers of Barbary which run into the Atlantic Ocean. 24.* What do you remember about the R. Moulouia? 25.* What about the rivers Mejerdah and Zaab? 26.* What other rivers of Barbary can you mention, which run into the Mediterranean Sea? 27.* Describe the lakes traversed by the R. Cabes. 28.* What can you state about the Lakes of Bizerta and Melgig? 29.* Mention what you know about The Shott. 30.* And about L. Titteri. 31.* Name the chief capes of Barbary on the Atlantic Ocean. 32.* Also those in the Mediterranean Sea. 33.* Describe the Strait of Gibraltar. 34.* What can you state about the Great Syrtis? 35.* What about the Little Syrtis? 36.* Name the other chief gulfs of Barbary.

37.* How is the Empire of Morocco bounded? 38.* State its area and population. 39.* Of what parts is it composed? 40.* Whence is its name derived? 41.* What about the Moors and Moriscos? 42.* What is the religion of the Moors? 43.* What is the nature of their government? 44.* To what sect do the Moors belong? 45.* Give some account of their religious and superstitious habits. 46.* What completes the despotism of Morocco? 47.* How are its subjects treated by their monarch? 48.* What effect does money produce upon the government and people? 49.* Who are termed Bashaws? 50.* How were the Saracens connected with Morocco? 51.* Give some account of the Almoravides. 52.* And of the Almonades. 53.* Who are termed Sheriffs? 54.* What was the origin of the present emperor of Morocco? 55.* Copy out the table from Section Thirteen. 56.* Where is the city of Morocco, and by what other name is it known? 57.* When was it built? 58.* What has been, and is now, its population? 59.* Mention what else you know about it. 60.* Give some account of Mogodor. 61.* And

of Saffi. 62. What do you remember about Agadeer? 63. What about Terodant?

64.* What portion of Morocco does the kingdom of Fez form? 65.* How is it bounded? 66.* Describe its metropolis. 67. What circumstances have rendered Fez famous? 68. What are caravansaries? 69. What can you mention about those of Fez? 70. Give some account of Mequinez. 71. Also of Sallee and Rabat. 72. Point out the situation of Tangier. 73. Mention what you know concerning it. 74. Describe Ceuta. 75. Opposite to what British possession does it lie? 76. What settlements have the Spaniards on this coast?

77.* How is the Regency of Algiers bounded? 78.* State its area and population. 79.* How is it divided? 80.* To what kingdom did it formerly belong? 81.* In what way does the religion of Algiers differ from that of the Turks? 82.* What is the nature of its government? 83.* Define the terms Dey, and Douwan or Divan. 84. How is the Dey chosen? 85. Who aspires to the rank? 86. What is usually the fate of the Deys? 87. Give some account of the Douwan. 88. What is its present office? 89. How were the Vandals and Saracens connected with Morocco? 90. Who governed it after them? 91. Give the history of the Spanish dominion over it. 92. Mention what you know about Barbarossa. 93. Who succeeded him? 94. In what way did the Turkish sultan obtain the sovereignty of Algiers? 95. How did the Algerines contrive to evade the Turkish yoke? 96. What authority does the Sultan of Constantinople now possess over them? 97. What is the general character of the Algerines? 98.* Point out the situation of the metropolis of Algiers. 99.* Give the origin of its name. 100.* What do you know about its population? 101.* Mention some other particulars concerning it. 102. Describe its appearance. 103. What can you state about the fort and mole of Algiers? 104. What do you know about Bujeya? 105. What about Stora, Bona, and La Cala? 106. Describe the province and town of Cosantina. 107. Mention what you know about Tremezen. 108. And about Oran?

109.* How is the Regency of Tunis bounded? 110.* State its area and population. 111.* What is its religion? 112.* What can you state about the dominion of the Turks in Tunis? 113.* What is the form of government in Tunis? 114. What can you mention about the Saracens in connexion with Tunis? 115. And what about it in connexion with Morocco? 116. Under whom did Tunis become a part of the Ottoman Empire? 117. What led to the Tunisians throwing off the Turkish yoke? 118. How was this effected? 119. Mention some particulars about the power of the Bey. 120. In what way is the succession to the throne usually settled? 121. Give some account of the Douwan and its duties. 122. How is Tunis at present divided? 123. In what way has Tunis suffered from its neighbourhood to Algiers? 124.* Describe the situation of the metropolis of Tunis. 125.* Mention some particulars about it. 126.* Where is The Goletta, and what about it? 127. Describe the appearance of the city of Tunis. 128. Give some account of Bizerta. 129. What towns can you mention on the Eastern coast of Tunis? 130. Where is Kairwan? 131. Mention what you know about it. 132. Give some particulars concerning the town and river of Cabel.

133.* What dependency does the Regency of Tripoli include? 134.* How are they bounded? 135.* State their area and population. 136.* What can you mention about the habitable part of the country? 137.* What is the religion of Tripoli? 138.* Give some account of its government. 139.* What authority does the Sublime Porte possess in Tripoli? 140. To

what Powers has Tripoli been subject at various times? 141. How was it that it fell into the hands of the Knights of Malta? 142. To whom did they deliver it up? 143. In what way was its independence asserted? 144. What is the nature of its present connexion with Turkey? 145. What can you mention about its political character? 146.* Point out the situation of the metropolis of Tripoli. 147.* Describe its appearance. 148. What do you remember about Lebida and Mesurata? 149. What other towns can you name on the G. of Sidra? 150.* Where is the territory of Barca, and how is it governed? 151.* Where is Bengazi, and what about it? 152. What can you state about the towns Teukera, Dolmetta, and Barca? 153. What about Kuren? 154. Describe the capital of Barca. 155. Where is the G. of Bomba, and whence does it derive its name? 156. Give some account of Angela. 157. And also of the Oasis of Siwah.

CHAPTER XXVI.

PACHALIC OF EGYPT.

1.* How is Egypt bounded? 2.* State its area and population. 3.* What proportion of it is desert? 4.* How is the valley of the R. Nile bounded? 5.* Where is Gebel Ataka? 6.* Describe that range of mountains which lies between the R. Nile and the Red Sea. 7.* Is the R. Nile long? 8.* How and where does it rise? 9.* Give some account of the Blue Nile. 10.* And also of the White Nile. 11.* State the total length of the river. 12.* What do you remember about the two great cataracts of the Nile? 13.* Describe the Delta. 14. Mention the most interesting phenomenon connected with the Nile. 15. What beneficial effect does it produce upon the country? 16. Describe its operations. 17. What is the cause of the inundation? 18. What is its average rise? 19. What appearance does the country produce when the inundation has passed away? 20.* Where is the Sea of Suez, and what about it? 21.* What lakes can you name at the mouth of the Nile? 22.* Where is the G. of the Arabs? 23.* Where is the Birket-el-Quorn? 24.* Mention the chief capes of Egypt.

25.* What religions are professed in Egypt? 26.* What is the doctrine of the Copts? 27.* What particulars can you mention about the Pacha of Egypt? 28.* Mention the divisions of Egypt. 29. Copy out the table from Section Eight. 30. Mention what you remember about the Saracen dominion in Egypt. 31. Who succeeded them? 32. Who were the Mamelukes, and whence did they come? 33. Give the origin of their name. 34. What power did they at last obtain in Egypt? 35. How did this happen? 36. What can you state about their sovereigns generally? 37. Describe their general character. 38. How was their dominion terminated? 39. What finally became of them? 40. Mention some particulars about the Turkish power in Egypt. 41. Who are the Copts? 42. What religion do they profess? 43. To what have their religious opinions exposed them? 44. State their character and condition. 45. In what way are they employed? 46. What can you mention about their worship? 47. And about their connexion with the Latins? 48. Give some account of their religious opinions. 49. Where do they chiefly reside? 50. Where is the great establishment of the Coptic monks? 51. Describe it.

52.* By what other name is Alexandria known? 53.* Describe its situation and appearance. 54.* What is its present population? 55.* To what circumstance did it owe its former greatness? 56.* What destroyed this? 57. Give some account of Pompey's Pillar. 58. And of Cleopatra's Needles.

59. What else can you mention concerning the interior of Alexandria? 60. Describe Rosetta. 61. And Damiatta. 62.* Where is Cairo situated, and by what other name is it known? 63.* What particulars can you state about it? 64. When, and by whom, was it built? 65. In what way did Cairo rise into importance? 66. Give some account of its present appearance. 67. Mention what you know about Old Cairo. 68. Where is Suez? 69. What rendered it formerly famous? 70. Describe its present state.

71. What is the nature of Egypt to the South of the Delta? 72. Where is the Faioum? 73. Describe it. 74. How is it watered? 75. Give some account of its chief town. 76. Where is Es-Siout, and what about it? 77. Point out the situation of Ghouft. 78. For what was it anciently famed? 79. What can you mention about it in connexion with the early Christians? 80. Where is Cosseir? 81. What do you remember concerning it? 82. Describe Es-Souan.

NUBIAN STATES.

83.* How is Nubia bounded? 84.* State its area and population. 85.* What portion of it is cultivated? 86.* By whom is it inhabited? 87.* Give the condition and habits of these people. 88.* What can you mention about the mountains in the E. part of Nubia? 89.* What is the appearance of the Nubian Valley of the Nile? 90.* How does this great river water Nubia? 91.* What arms of it meet at Halfaia? 92.* Where are the rivers Rahad and Dender. 93.* Describe the course of the R. Atbara. 94.* What is the religion of the Nubians? 95.* Give some account of its government. 96. What can you state about the union of the several Nubian tribes? 97.* How many great divisions are there in Nubia? 98.* Give their names and situations. 99. What do you remember concerning the Arabs of Nubia? 100. What is the colour of the Nubians.

101.* How is Turkish Nubia bounded? 102.* Describe the nature of the country. 103. How is it governed? 104. What do you recollect about the Osmanlies? 105. Mention what you know about its chief towns. 106.* How is the kingdom of Dongola bounded? 107.* Whereabouts is it situated? 108.* Mention its capital. 109.* Give some account of it. 110. Name the chief divisions of Dongola. 111. How is it governed? 112. What do you remember concerning it in connexion with the Mamelukes? 113. What about Old Dongola? 114. Give some account of Goos. 115. Describe the town of Chandi. 116. And Halfaia.

117.* How is the Kingdom of Sennaar bounded? 118.* Is it an important State? 119.* Mention what you know about its capital. 120. What can you state about the power of Sennaar? 121. Describe its government. 122. And religion. 123. When and by whom was the kingdom of Sennaar founded? 124. Describe the appearance of the capital of Sennaar. 125. Name its other chief towns. 126.* Where do the Bedjas dwell? 127.* Are they a powerful tribe? 128.* Describe the appearance of their country. 129.* Where is the Nubian Desert? 130. What road traverses the Bedjas' country? 131. What about it? 132. Where is Sakin? 133. Mention what you know about it.

THE KINGDOM OF ABYSSINIA.

134.* By what other names is Abyssinia known? 135.* How is it bounded? 136.* State its area and population. 137.* What is the natural aspect of Abyssinia? 138.* Name its principal mountains. 139.* What do you remember about those of Samen and Gojam? 140.* Give the course of the Blue Nile. 141.* Name its tributaries. 142.* What can you state about the other rivers of Abyssinia? 143. What sea washes the Abyssinia?

coast? 144. Name some of its bays. 145. Give some account of the Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb.

146.* What religion do the Abyssinians profess? 147.* Give some general description of it. 148.* Of what sects are they usually considered a branch? 149. What resemblance does their creed bear to that of the Greek Church? 150. How did Frumentius defend it? 151. What do you know about the churches and ceremonies of the Abyssinians? 152. Why have they desired to join the Church of Rome? 153. What can you state about their pretended miracles and the Jesuits? 154. What about their other superstitions? 155. How is the Abyssinian Church governed? 156. What do you know about the Mahometans and Pagans of Abyssinia? 157.* Name the three principal divisions of Abyssinia. 158.* How are they governed? 159.* What is the political condition of the country? 160. What is the consequence of this state of things? 161. What can you mention about the former condition of the country? 162. Describe the invasion of the Galla. 163. What revolution have they effected in Abyssinia?

164.* Where is Gondar? 165.* What formerly distinguished it? 166.* To whom does it now belong? 167.* Mention some particulars about it. 168. Where is Tigre, and what circumstances render it important? 169. Repeat what you know concerning it. 170. Give some account of Masuah. 171. Name some other towns of Abyssinia. 172. Where is Emfras? 173. What other Galla towns can you mention? 174. Where are Tegulet and Ankober? 175. Where is the district of Adel? 176. Mention what you know about it.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE SOUTH EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

1.* How is the South Eastern coast of Africa divided? 2.* What can you state about its mountains? 3.* Where are the M. of Lupata? 4.* What about the R. Quilimanci? 5.* What other rivers can you mention on this coast? 6.* And what great promontories. 7.* Where is L. Maravi, and what about it? 8.* Where do the Somaulis dwell? 9.* Describe their chief town. 10.* Where is Ajan? 11.* What States can you mention to the S. of it? 12. What particulars can you state about the dominion of the Portuguese upon this coast? 13. Give some account of the kingdom of Magadoxa. 14. And of the republic of Brava. 15. Describe the kingdoms of Juba and Melinda. 16. What about Patta and Lamoo? 17.* In what way is the appellation Zanzibar used? 18.* What is it said to signify? 19.* Of what nations does its population consist? 20. What dominion have, or had, the Portuguese over it? 21. How did they lose it? 22. What States does it now contain? 23. Give some account of the I. of Zanzibar.

24.* Where are the States of Querimba and Mozambique? 25.* To whom are they tributary? 26.* Give the situation of the town of Mozambique. 27.* What particulars do you remember concerning it? 28.* Where is the Mozambique Channel, and what about it? 29. Whereabouts are the Querimba Islands? 30. Name the two chief ones. 31. How is the appellation Mozambique properly used? 32. How do the Portuguese affect to divide their dominions here? 33. What can you state about their power in some of them? 34. Mention some particulars about the town of Mozambique. 35. And about the town of Quilimane. 36.* By what other names is the Empire of Mocaranga known? 37.* Describe its situation. 38.* How is it divided and governed? 39.* Mention the names of its

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principal States. 40.* What range of mountains intersects it? 41.* Give some account of the R. Zambeze. 42.* What other rivers can you mention in the country. 43. What do you remember about the inhabitants of Zimbabwe? 44. Where is its metropolis? 45. Give some account of the town and fort of Sofala. 46. What other forts are near it? 47. How is the country between Mocaranga and The Cape of Good Hope inhabited? 48. Which is the most powerful tribe there? 49. Name the other tribes. 50. Where is the Coast of Natal, and what about it?

51.* By what other name is Madagascar known? 52.* What can you mention about its extent? 53.* In what direction is it situated? 54.* Where is its capital, and what about it? 55.* Name some of its other towns. 56. What can you state about the inhabitants of Madagascar? 57. How are they governed? 58. What is the character of their Northern tribes? 59. Name the two chief capes of Madagascar. 60. Give some account of its mountains. 61. Name its principal rivers. 62. Also its chief harbours. 63. What can you state about the French settlements in Madagascar? 64. Point out the situation of the Comoro Isles. 65. Name them. 66. What do you remember about their inhabitants? 67. By what other name is the I. of Mauritius known? 68. Give the situation of it and I. Bourbon. 69. Mention what you know about them. 70. What islands can you enumerate as lying off the N. E. promontory of Madagascar? 71. Mention what you know about the Seychelles.

THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

72.* To whom does the territory of the Cape of Good Hope belong? 73.* How is it bounded? 74.* State its area and population. 75.* Whence has it derived its name? 76.* Who are its most numerous inhabitants? 77. What was the former name of the Cape of Good Hope, and why was it so called? 78. By whom, and when, was it first discovered? 79. Give the history of this discovery. 80. Did the Portuguese ever settle at The Cape? 81. Give some particulars respecting its possession by the Dutch. 82. When, and how, did it fall into the hands of the British? 83.* In what way is the Cape Colony traversed by mountains? 84.* Name some of its highest points. 85.* Mention its principal rivers. 86.* Describe the Orange River. 87. Who are the original inhabitants of the Cape Colony, and how are they divided? 88. What is their condition? 89. Describe their mode of life. 90. What is their religion? 91. Give some account of the Bosjesmans. 92. And of the Namaquas.

93.* How is the Cape Colony divided? 94.* Name its chief provinces. 95.* Name the Northern districts. 96.* Give the situation of the metropolis of the Colony. 97.* What is its population? 98. What renders Cape Town important? 99. Describe its appearance. 100. Where is False Bay? 101. What lofty mountains can you mention near Cape Town? 102. What can you state about Saldanha Bay and St. Helena Bay? 103. Where is Algoa Bay, and what about it? 104. What other Bays can you mention on the S. coast of Africa.

105. By whom is the country to the N. of the Cape Colony inhabited? 106. What do you remember about these tribes? 107. Give some account of Klaarwater. 108. Describe the capital of the Bichuanas. 109. What do you know about Kurrreechane? 110. What can you mention about the S. Western coast of Africa? 111. Are there any towns upon it? 112. How is it supplied with water? 113. Where do the Cimbebas dwell?

LOWER GUINEA.

114.* To what countries has the name of Lower Guinea been applied? 115.* By what name do the natives distinguish the interior of the country? 116.* Give some account of its government. 117.* What is the religion of the people? 118.* Name the principal kingdoms of Lower Guinea. 119.* State its area and population. 120. What is the appearance of the natives? 121. By whom, and when, was Lower Guinea first discovered? 122. How did they attempt to civilize it? 123. What can you mention about the reputed proselytes of the Jesuits here? 124. How is it that so little is known about these regions? 125. In what way has the abolition of the slave-trade affected them? 126.* Mention what you know about the R. Zahir. 127.* What other rivers can you name in Lower Guinea? 128. Give the situation of the kingdom of Benguela. 129. Describe its chief town. 130. Where are the two states of Lubolo and Matamba? 131. Give some account of the Giagas. 132.* How is the kingdom of Angola bounded? 133.* In what extended way is the appellation Angola sometimes used? 134.* Name its capital. 135.* Why is it remarkable? 136.* Mention what you know about it. 137.* State the limits of the Kingdom of Coage. 138.* Which is its chief town? 139.* Repeat what you remember concerning it. 140. Give the boundaries of the kingdom of Loango. 141. Describe its capital. 142. By what is it rendered infamous? 143. Mention some other towns in this kingdom.

THE COAST OF GUINEA.

144.* To what extent of country is the name of Guinea applied? 145.* State its area and population. 146.* In what other ways is the appellation likewise understood? 147.* Where is the Gulf of Guinea, and what about it? 148.* How do the Europeans commonly divide Guinea? 149.* Give the limits of the Slave Coast. 150.* How is it subdivided? 151.* What can you state about the inhabitants of Guinea? 152.* How are they governed? 153.* What is their religion? 154.* Give some general account of the European settlements here. 155.* What can you state about the mountains of Biafra? 156.* What about the M^s. of Kong? 157.* Repeat what you know about the mouths of the Nigir. 158.* Name the other chief rivers on the coast of Guinea. 159.* And also its principal promontories. 160. Give some account of the Coast of Gaboon. 161. Also of the Coast of Biafra. 162. To what Bight has the latter given name? 163. Where is the coast of Calabar, and what about it? 164. Name its chief towns. 165. Describe the coast and town of Benin.

166. Between what limits does the Slave coast extend? 167. Whence has it derived its name? 168. What kingdoms can you mention in it? 169. What do you remember about the State of Dahomey? 170. Mention the chief towns of the Slave-coast. 171. How is the Gold Coast bounded? 172. Why was it so called? 173. Has much gold been found there? 174. What do you remember about the castle of El Mina? 175. What European Power now possesses most influence upon this coast? 176. What has tended to increase this influence? 177. What States can you mention on the Gold Coast? 178. Give some particulars about that of Ashantee. 179. What do you know about Coomassie? 180. What about Cape-Coast-Castle? 181. Name the other British settlements on this coast.

182. Give the limits of the Ivory Coast. 183. Whence has it obtained this name? 184. What can you mention concerning its towns? 185.

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Name the chief of them. 186. Give some account of the inhabitants of the country. 187. Where is the Grain Coast. 188. Whence has it derived this name? 189. What can you mention about this grain? 190. By what other appellations is it known? 191. Give some account of its chief towns. 192. What can you state about Fernando Po? 193. And what about Prince's Island? 194. Where is the I. of St. Thomas, and what about it? 195. What do you remember concerning the I. of Anno Bon? 196. Where is the I. of St. Helena? 197. For what is it remarkable? 198. To whom does it belong?

SENEGAMBIA.

199.* How is Senegambia bounded? 200.* State its area and population. 201.* Whence is its name derived? 202.* What rivers does it contain? 203.* Describe the course of the Senegal. 204.* Name its chief tributaries. 205.* Where do all these rivers rise and terminate? 206.* Mention the chief capes of Senegambia. 207.* How is the country divided? 208.* What can you state about its inhabitants? 209.* Give some account of the Mandingoes. 210.* Also of the Foulahs. 211.* What can you mention about the Jaloffs? 212. Copy out the table from Section Forty-four. 213. Mention some of the chief towns in Senegambia. 214.* To whom does Sierra Leone belong? 215.* Where is it? 216.* Whence has it derived its name? 217.* Give the population of the colony. 218.* Mention its chief towns. 219. Why was the settlement of Sierra Leone formed? 220. How far has this humane plan succeeded? 221. What other colonies have the British on this coast? 222. Whereabouts are the French settlements in Senegambia, and by what name are they distinguished? 223. Describe their chief colony. 224. What others can you name on the R. Senegal? 225. Mention what you know about Goree and Albreda. 226. What can you state about the Portuguese settlements on this coast?

SOUDAN OR NIGRITIA.

227.* What do the names Soudan and Nigritia signify properly? 228.* In what way are they usually employed? 229.* How is Soudan bounded? 230.* State its area and population. 231.* How has it been explored? 232.* How is it divided? 233.* How are these kingdoms governed? 234.* What causes can you assign for their frequent attacks upon each other? 235.* What religion do the people profess? 236.* By what other names is the R. Nigir known? 237.* Describe its course. 238.* Mention its four chief tributaries. 239.* What can you state about the R. Shary? 240.* Where is L. Tchad? 241.* With what rivers is it connected? 242.* What about L. Fittre and the R. Djyr? 243.* What can you state about the supposed junction of the Nigir and Nile? 244. Copy out the table from Section Fifty-two. 245.* Where is Tombuctoo? 246.* What makes it remarkable? 247.* Describe its appearance. 248.* To what does it owe all its importance? 249.* What can you mention with respect to its population? 250. Describe the town of New-Birnie. 251. What do you know about Kanem? 252. What about Begharmi? 253. Where is Waday, and by what other name is it known? 254. Describe its chief town.

TIBBOO AND TUARICK.

255. What part of Africa do the Tibboo inhabit? 256. How are they bounded? 257. What is their appearance? 258. Describe their habits of life. 259. How are they governed? 260. What religion do they profess? 261. Mention their principal tribes. 262. Where are the towns Abo and Yen? 263. Whereabouts do the Tuarick dwell? 264. How are they

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bounded? 265. What can you state about their appearance? 266. What religion do they profess? 267. Describe their habits of life. 268. How do the caravans bribe them? 269. Enumerate the principal Tuarick tribes. 270. Name some of the Moorish tribes in the W. parts of the Sahara. 271. Give some account of them.

KINGDOM OF FEZZAN.

272.* How is Fezzan bounded? 273.* State its area and population. 274.* What is the nature of its population? 275.* What religion do the people profess? 276.* How are they governed? 277.* Where is Mourzouk? 278.* Repeat what you know concerning it. 279. What do you remember about the rivers of Fezzan? 280. Give some account of the Soudah Mountains. 281. And also of the White Harutsh M^s. 282. Who established Mahometanism in Fezzan? 283. What can you mention about the negroes in Fezzan? 284. Whence does Fezzan derive all its importance? 285. What do you remember about the power of its sovereign? 286. Name the chief towns in Fezzan besides Mourzouk.

THE CAPE VERDE, CANARY, MADEIRA, AND WESTERN ISLANDS.

287. Give the situation of the Cape Verde Islands. 288. Name the principal of them. 289. State their area and population. 290. What do you remember about this first discovery? 291. To whom do they belong? 292. Where are the Canary Islands? 293. By what other name are they known? 294. Enumerate the principal islands. 295. For what are those of Canary and Teneriffe remarkable? 296. State the area and population of the whole group. 297. To whom do they belong? 298. What can you mention about their discovery in the middle ages? 299. By what name were their aboriginal inhabitants known? 300. Give the history of those unfortunate beings. 301. Where are the Madeira Islands? 302. To what Power do they belong? 303. Repeat what you know concerning them. 304. By what other name are the Western Islands known? 305. Give their situation. 306. To whom do they belong? 307. Name the principal islands. 308. Give some account of the chief one. 309. Mention what you know about their discovery.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA.

1.* How may America be described? 2.* How is it bounded? 3.* What can you state respecting its population and superficial extent? 4.* When, and by whom, was it first discovered? 5.* Whence has it derived its name? 6.* What can you state about Sebastian Cabot? 7. What opinion induced Columbus to form his plan for the discovery of America? 8. To what nation did he tender the offer of his services in this matter? 9. How were they received? 10. To what nations did he then apply for assistance in his proposed expedition? 11. What arrangement did the Court of Spain at last make with him? 12. Whence did he set sail? 13. What part of America did he first touch at? 14. What did he do there? 15. What other parts of the New World did he then visit? 16. What did he take home with him, and how long had he been absent? 17. What was the consequence of his success? 18. When and whence did he sail on his second expedition? 19. What islands did he first touch at? 20. Mention some other particulars about this voyage. 21. How came he to return to Spain so soon? 22. What was the consequence of his return?

23. When did Columbus set out on his third voyage? 24. What places did he visit? 25. How came Amerigo Vespucci to be sent out after him? 26. How was Columbus treated in the continent he had discovered? 27. How was he received when he reached Spain? 28. When did he make his fourth and last voyage to America? 29. How did he find the Spaniards behaving towards the natives? 30. What places did he touch at? 31. Where did he found a colony? 32. What induced him to return to Spain? 33. What did he then experience in Spain? 34. What offer did the king of Spain make him? 35. How did this affect Columbus? 36. When and where did he die? 37. Where was he buried? 38. How were the Indians of America treated by the Spaniards after his death? 39. What means did the latter use to subjugate them? 40. How did they employ the natives? 41. What was the leading cause of such brutality? 42. What was the general character of these Spaniards? 43. What can you state about the ignorance of Almagro and Pizarro? 44. What was the army that these monsters led against Peru? 45. What was the number of the troops who marched against Mexico under Cortez? 46. What can you mention concerning the atrocious crimes committed by these men? 47. What was the issue of such an invasion? 48. And what retribution seems to have followed it?

49.* Describe the great mountain-range of America? 50.* By what names is it known? 51.* Where are the Alleghany Mountains? 52.* By what other appellation are they distinguished, and why so? 53.* Give some account. 54.* What do you remember about their formation? 55.* Name some of the principal mountains. 56. Copy out the table in Section Ten. 57.* Describe the Isthmus of Darien. 58.* Mention the two great divisions of America. 59.* To what nations does the N. part of America belong? 60.* Where is Russian America? 61.* What do you know about British America? 62.* How is it subdivided? 63.* Where are Greenland and Iceland? 64.* Point out the situation of the United States and Mexico. 65.* Also that of Balize and Guatemala. 66.* Give some description of the West India Islands. 67.* Where is Colombia? 68.* What do you know about Guyana? 69.* What about Brazil? 70.* Give the situation of Peru and Bolivia. 71.* Also of Paraguay. 72.* Where is La Plata? 73.* How is Chili bounded? 74.* Describe Patagonia. 75.* Where is the Strait of Magellan? 76.* What islands lie to the E. of Patagonia? 77.* Give some account of New South Shetland. 78. Copy out the table in Section Fifteen. 79. How were the Spanish dominions in America formerly divided? 80. Name their several parts.

81.* Where is the Unjigah or Peace R. 1 82.* Describe its junction with Mackenzie's R. 83.* Mention what you know about the course of the R. Mississippi. 84.* And about that of the R. Saskatchewan. 85.* Give some account of the R. St. Lawrence. 86.* What do you remember concerning the R. Utawas? 87. Mention some of the names by which the St. Lawrence is known in different parts. 88. Where is the Cataract of Niagara? 89. What particulars do you remember concerning it? 90.* Enumerate the principal rivers of the United States. 91.* Where is the R. Mississippi, and what about it? 92.* What other great river joins it? 93.* What can you remark concerning their united stream? 94.* Name the chief tributaries of the Mississippi. 95.* Mention the principal rivers of Mexico. 96.* Describe the R. Columbia. 97.* What do you recollect concerning all the great rivers of South America? 98.* Give some account of the rivers Magdalena and Orinoco. 99.* Give the course of the R. Amazon. 100.* Mention some of its principal tributaries. 101.* What can you state about the R. Para and its adjuncts? 102.* Describe the course of the Rio de la Plata.

103.* Name its chief tributaries. 104. Copy out the table from Section Twenty-four.

105.* Where is Baffin's Bay? 106.* How is it connected with the Atlantic Ocean? 107.* Mention what you know concerning Hudson's Bay and Strait. 108.* Where is the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and what about it? 109.* Give the situation of the Gulf of Mexico. 110.* Describe the Gulf Stream. 111.* Where is the Caribbean Sea? 112.* What particulars do you remember concerning it? 113.* Repeat what you know about the Bay of Panama. 114.* Where is the G. of California? 115.* Name the principal inland seas of America. 116.* Describe Davis' Strait. 117.* And Hudson's Strait. 118.* Where is the St. of Bellisle? 119.* What do you recollect about the Strait of Magellan? 120.* What about Bhering's Strait? 121. Name the chief promontories of America on its Eastern side. 122. Also those on its Western side. 123. What is the least width of Bhering's Strait?

CHAPTER XXIX.

BRITISH AMERICA.

1.* How is British America bounded? 2.* State its area and population. 3.* Name its principal divisions. 4.* In what way is it governed? 5.* What range of mountains can you mention in it? 6.* What can you state about some of its highest points? 7.* Name those of its rivers which flow into the Frozen Ocean. 8.* Also those which discharge themselves into the Atlantic? 9.* Also those which run into Hudson's Bay. 10.* What about the R. St. Lawrence? 11.* Name the principal lakes of British America. 12.* Also those which partly form the line of demarcation between it and the United States.

13.* Why are Upper and Lower Canada so called? 14.* Did they ever form one province, and when? 15.* How are they divided from each other? 16.* Give the situation of each. 17. By whom, and when, was Canada first discovered? 18. Give some account of the first French visit to it. 19. When did the French establish their first colony there? 20. Give some account of the French dominion there. 21. What can you state about the progressive improvement of the country? 22. To whom does Canada now belong? 23. Mention some particulars about our obtaining it. 24.* What is the nature of the Canadian constitution? 25.* Give some account of the legislative power. 26.* What can you state about the authority of the Governor? 27.* What is the religion of the country? 28. Name the districts into which Upper Canada is divided. 29. Describe its capital. 30. Enumerate its other chief towns. 31. How is Lower Canada divided? 32.* How is Quebec situated? 33.* What makes it worthy of notice? 34.* Mention what you know about it. 35. When, and by whom, was it founded? 36. Describe its appearance. 37. What reverses of fortune has it experienced? 38. Describe its harbour. 39. Point out the situation of Montreal. 40. Give some account of it. 41. What other great towns can you mention in Lower Canada?

42.* How is New Brunswick bounded? 43.* How is it divided? 44.* Mention what you know about its capital. 45. Describe its appearance. 46. What other towns in New Brunswick can you recollect? 47.* What is the natural appearance of Nova Scotia? 48.* How is it separated from New Brunswick? 49.* In what way was the appellation formerly applied? 50.* Mention what you know about Halifax. 51.* Why is it remarkable? 52. How is Nova Scotia subdivided? 53. What do you remember about Cape Breton Island? 54. Where was Acadia? 55. Give the origin of the name Nova Scotia. 56. Enumerate its other chief towns besides Halifax. 57.

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~~Where~~ is Prince Edward's Ireland, and by what other name is it known? 58. What are its dimensions? 59. Give some particulars in its history. 60. How is it divided? 61. Describe its capital. 62. Name its other chief towns.

63.* By whom was the I. of Newfoundland discovered? 64.* Describe its situation and appearance. 65.* What is its area? 66.* What about its divisions and towns? 67.* Name its capital. 68. What do you remember concerning the bays of Newfoundland? 69. What about the cod-fishery there? 70. Mention some particulars in the history of Newfoundland. 71. Repeat what you know about its capital. 72. What about Placentia. 73.* In what way is the appellation New Britain sometimes used? 74.* In what way is it more properly applied? 75.* What countries does it comprehend? 76.* Mention some of the chief Indian tribes that inhabit it. 77.* What can you state about these savages generally? 78.* What British Companies possess factories amongst them? 79. Name the chief of these factories. 80. Point out the situation of Labrador. 81. In what way has it been chiefly made known? 82. How have its Northern shores been principally explored? 83. What can you state about the North West Passage, and the expeditions to discover it? 84. Where is the North West Territory, as it is called? 85. Give some account of its inhabitants. 86. What can you mention about its chief islands? 87. Where is Nootka Sound? 88. Describe the Gulf of Georgia. 89. What can you state about the mouth of the R. Columbia?

GREENLAND AND ICELAND.

90.* Where is Greenland? 91.* Describe its situation. 92.* What is known respecting its figure? 93.* Name the principal places on its Western coast. 94.* Also those on its Eastern coast. 95.* What can you state about their population? 96.* To whom does Greenland belong? 97. When, and by whom, was it discovered? 98. What was the consequence of this discovery? 99. Whence did it derive its name? 100. Give some account of the colony which was established on the E. coast of Greenland. 101. Repeat what you know about Lost Greenland. 102. When, and by whom, were colonies established on the W. coast of the country? 103. Give some account of them. 104.* Point out the situation of Iceland. 105.* State its area and population. 106.* How is it governed? 107.* Give some account of its hot springs. 108. How is Iceland divided? 109. What religion is professed there? 110. Name its chief towns. 111. What can you mention about its towns generally? 112. What about its mountains? 113. Mention what you know about M^r. Hecla.

RUSSIAN AMERICA.

114.* Where is Russian America? 115.* How is it bounded? 116.* State its area and population. 117.* What is known concerning it? 118. How do the Russians divide their American possessions? 119. Give some account of Sitka. 120. What can you state about the Westernmost part of America? 121. Where are the Aleutian Isles? 122. Name the principal ones amongst them.

THE UNITED STATES.

123.* How is the republic of the United States bounded? 124.* State its area and population. 125.* What proportion of the country is inhabited? 126. In what may it be divided so as to point out the inhabited part? 127. Of what great Power were the United States originally colonies? 128. Give the dates and situations of the first settlements. 129. Give the history of their independence. 130. What can you state about the Constitution of the country. 131.* Name the two principal ranges of mountains.

in the United States. 132.* Where are the Rocky M., and what about them? 133.* Give the situation of the Alleghany M. 134.* Of what ridges are they composed? 135.* What rivers do they divide? 136.* How are the United States supplied with rivers? 137.* Mention those which flow into the Atlantic Ocean. 138.* Also those which run into the Gulf of Mexico. 139.* Give some account of the R. Mississippi. 140.* Name its chief tributaries.

141.* What is the religion of the United States? 142.* Give some account of the manner in which it is professed there. 143.* Define the government of the United States. 144.* What can you mention about the legislature of each state, and that of the whole country? 145.* Give some account of the Congress. 146.* In whose hands is the executive power placed? 147.* What about the Supreme Court? 148. By what various races of people are the United States inhabited? 149. Of what nations are the Whites chiefly composed? 150. What can you mention about the Indians of the United States? 151. What about the Negroes? 152. What can you state about the literature of the country? 153. And what about its seminaries? 154. Name its three principal colleges. 155.* In what way have the United States varied in their number? 156.* How many are there reckoned now? 157.* Into what general divisions are they distinguished? 158.* Name the metropolis of the United States. 159.* Also its other great towns. 160. Copy out the table from Section Thirty-six.

161.* Where is the city of Washington situated? 162.* What is its character as a metropolis? 163.* Mention some particulars concerning it. 164. Where is the district of Columbia? 165. What renders it important? 166. Point out the situation of Philadelphia. 167. By whom was it founded? 168. Give some account of it. 169. How is the city of New York situated? 170. Describe its appearance. 171. Where is Boston? 172. What can you mention concerning it? 173. What about Baltimore? 174. Repeat what you know about Charleston. 175. Give some account of New Orleans. 176. Name the principal navy-yards of the United States.

CHAPTER XXX.

MEXICO.

1.* How is Mexico bounded? 2.* State its area and population. 3. By whom, and when was it subdued? 4. What can you mention about the inhabitants and their ruler at that period? 5. What name did the Spaniards give it, and how did they govern it? 6. What was the consequence of their tyranny? 7. What can you mention about the population of Mexico? 8. Who are termed Creoles and Chapetones? 9.* In what way is Mexico traversed by mountains? 10.* What is one of its most remarkable peculiarities? 11.* Name its principal ranges of mountains. 12.* What can you mention about the mines of Mexico? 13.* How is it supplied with rivers? 14.* Mention those which run into the G. of California. 15.* Also those which run into the G. of Mexico. 16.* Enumerate its chief lakes.

17.* What is the religion of Mexico? 18.* Describe its constitution and government. 19.* What can you mention about the native Indians? 20.* How did the Spaniards divide Mexico? 21.* How is it now divided? 22.* Name its metropolis. 23.* And its two principal ports. 24. Copy out the table from Section Seven. 25.* Point out the situation of the city of Mexico. 26.* When was it originally founded, and by what other name was it known? 27.* What other particulars can you mention about it? 28. What about the ancient Tenochtitlan? 29. Describe the present up-

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pearance of the city of Mexico. 30. Give the situation of Vera Cruz. 31. What renders it important? 32. Give some account of it. 33. Where is Acapulco? 34. Mention what you know about it.

CENTRAL AMERICA OR GUATIMALA.

35.* By what other name is the Republic of Central America known? 36.* How is it bounded? 37.* State its area and population. 38.* To whom did it formerly belong? 39.* How did these people govern it? 40. What can you state about the mountains of Guatemala? 41. What about its rivers? 42. Name its chief rivers. 43. What do you remember about the R. St. Juan and the L. of Nicaragua? 44.* What is the religion of Central America? 45.* Give some account of its constitution and government. 46.* How was the country formerly divided? 47.* And how is it divided at the present time? 48.* Name the metropolis of Central America. 49. Copy out the table from Section Fifteen. 50.* Point out the situation of the metropolis of Guatemala. 51.* Mention some particulars concerning it. 52. Describe its appearance. 53. How many cities have been the capitals of Guatemala during the last eighty years? 54. To what is this owing? 55. Mention what you know about the Antigua. 56. By what ports are the exterior communications of Guatemala carried on? 57. What can you state about Omoa? 58. What about Iztapa? 59. Give some account of the Mosquito Shore.

BALLEZE.

60.* In what various ways is the name of Balleze written? 61.* How is its territory bounded? 62.* State its area and population. 63.* To whom does it belong? 64.* When did it fall into the hands of the English? 65.* What trade is carried on with it? 66.* What is the name of the English settlement there? 67.* Whereabouts is it situated? 68.* Have the English more than one settlement in the country? 69. Describe the appearance of the town of Balleze. 70. How is it defended? 71. What singular fact can you mention about the island on which the fort of Balleze is built?

WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

72.* In what direction does the chain of the West India Islands lie? 73.* State their united area and population. 74.* Whence did they obtain this name? 75.* Who gave it to them? 76. How came Columbus to entertain such an erroneous opinion concerning the West Indies? 77. How do the French distinguish the West India Islands? 78. Give the origin of this name. 79.* Mention the largest and Westernmost of the West India Islands? 80.* What can you state about Trinidad and Barbadoes? 81.* Give some account of the Great Antilles. 82.* Which are the Little Antilles? 83.* By what other name are they known? 84.* Where is the Caribbean Sea? 85.* Where are the Bahama Islands? 86.* To whom do most of the West India Islands belong? 87.* What can you mention about St. Domingo? 88.* Which of the West India islands belong to Spain? 89.* Which to France? 90.* Which to Holland? 91.* Which to Denmark? 92.* Which to Sweden? 93.* And which to Great Britain? 94. How are the West India Islands frequently divided? 95. Why are they so called? 96. In what various ways may these appellations be used? 97. Whence were they obtained? 98. How did the Spaniards divide the West India Islands? 99. What islands did they include under these names? 100. In what way do some of the European nations distinguish the Caribbean Islands? 101. Copy out the table from Section Twenty-six.

102. Where is Jamaica, and to whom does it belong? 103. How is it divided? 104. State its area and population. 105. Give some account of

its government. 106. Name its capital. 107. And its other chief towns. 108. What is the size of Cuba compared with the other West India Islands? 109. Point out its situation. 110. State its area and population. 111. To whom does it belong? 112. How is it governed? 113. Give some account of The Havannah. 114. What other towns can you name in Cuba? 115. By what other appellation are the Bahama Is. known? 116. Describe their situation. 117. What can you state about them generally? 118. Mention the most important of them? 119. What has rendered the I. of San Salvador interesting? 120. Repeat what you know about the Gulf Stream. 121. By what other names is St. Domingo known? 122. Describe its situation. 123. State its area and population. 124. What do you remember about the colour of its inhabitants? 125. To what nations did it formerly belong? 126. How was it divided between them? 127. When did it become independent? 128. Describe its form of government. 129. And religion. 130. How is the island at present divided? 131. Give some account of its capital. 132. Mention its other chief towns. 133. Where is Porto Rico, and by what other name is it known? 134. Give its situation. 135. To whom does it belong, and how is it governed? 136. What about its chief town? 137. Whence have the Caribbee Islands derived their name? 138. Mention what you remember concerning the Caribs. 139. Where are the Bermudas Is., and by what other appellation are they distinguished? 140. What is their nature, and to whom do they belong? 141. Enumerate the chief of them. 142. What is the population of the whole group.

CHAPTER XXXI.

COLOMBIA.

1.* What portion of South America does the Republic of Colombia include? 2.* How is it bounded? 3.* State its area and population. 4. To whom was it formerly subject? 5. How was it then divided? 6. When, and how, did it become independent? 7.* What can you mention about its mountains? 8.* Name some of its highest summits. 9.* What great rivers are there in Colombia? 10.* Give some account of them. 11.* What can you state about the Isthmus of Panama? 12.* Where is the Bay of Panama? 13.* Where are the Gulfs of Darien and Maracaybo? 14.* With what lake does the latter communicate? 15.* What is the religion of Colombia? 16.* Describe its constitution and government? 17.* How is Colombia divided? 18.* Name its chief town. 19. Copy out the table from Section Five. 20.* Where is Santa Fé de Bogota situated? 21.* Mention some particulars concerning it. 22. Where is the city of Quito? 23. How is it situated? 24. Repeat what you know about it. 25. Name the principal ports of Colombia on the Caribbean Sea. 26. Also those on the Pacific Ocean.

GUYANA.

27.* How is Guyana bounded? 28.* To what nations does it belong? 29.* How is it portioned out amongst them? 30. How was the name of Guyana formerly applied? 31. How was it then divided? 32. Amongst what nations was it then distributed? 33. What has become of Spanish Guyana? 34. What of Portuguese Guyana? 35. Copy out the table from Section Nine. 36. How is English Guyana divided? 37. Name these districts. 38. Describe its capital. 39. Give some account of the settlements of Essequibo and Berbice. 40. By what other title is Dutch Guyana known? 41. What can you state about Paramaribo? 42. How is French Guyana otherwise distinguished? 43. Mention what you know about the town of Cayenne.

EMPIRE OF BRAZIL.

44.* What portion of South America does the Empire of Brazil contain? 45.* How is it bounded? 46.* State its area and population. 47.* What comparison can you draw between them, and those of some other countries? 48. Whence is the name Brazil derived? 49. How was it at first applied? 50. By what appellations was the interior of the country then known? 51. How were the Portuguese possessions here formerly governed? 52. What led the Royal Family of Portugal to take up their abode in Brazil? 53. How long did they remain there? 54. What great event took place in Brazil shortly after they returned to Portugal? 55.* What can you state about the mountainous nature of Brazil? 56.* Name the principal range. 57.* For what are its mountains famed? 58.* Describe the course of the R. Amazon through Brazil. 59.* Name its chief Brazilian tributaries. 60.* Mention the other great rivers of Brazil. 61.* What can you state about the upper parts of the rivers Parana and Paraguay? 62.* What can you state about the religion of Brazil? 63.* What about the government? 64.* And what about the Indians of Brazil? 65.* How is Brazil at present divided? 66. Mention what you know about its metropolis? 67. Copy out the table from Section Fifteen. 68. How is the city of Rio Janeiro situated? 69. Describe its appearance. 70. What can you mention about the religious parade of the city? 71. What proportion of its inhabitants are slaves? 72. Describe its harbour. 73. Give some account of Bahia.

PERU.

74.* How is Peru bounded? 75.* State its area and population. 76. By whom and when was it conquered? 77. In what way was it previously governed? 78. Where did the Inca reside? 79. What took place after its subjection by Spain? 80. When, and how, did it become independent? 81.* What can you mention about the mountainous nature of Peru? 82.* What has rendered its mountains famous? 83.* What can you state generally concerning the rivers of Peru? 84.* Name the chief of them. 85.* Describe Lake Titicaca. 86.* What is the religion of Peru? 87.* Mention what you know about its government. 88.* How is the country divided? 89.* State what you know about its metropolis. 90. Copy out the table from Section Twenty-two. 91. How is Lima situated? 92. Whence is its name derived? 93. When was it founded? 94. Describe its appearance. 95. Give some account of Callao. 96. Where is Cuzco? 97. What rendered it celebrated formerly? 98. By whom, and when, was it founded? 99. Mention some farther particulars concerning it.

UPPER PERU OR BOLIVIA.

100.* By what other name is Upper Peru distinguished? 101.* How is it bounded? 102.* State its area and population. 103. Within what empire was it formerly included? 104. To what Viceroyalty did the Spaniards annex it? 105. When, and how, did it become independent? 106.* Does Upper Peru touch upon the Pacific Ocean? 107.* What can you state about the mountainous nature of the country? 108.* What can you mention generally about its rivers? 109.* Name the chief of them. 110.* What is the religion of Peru? 111.* Give some account of the government. 112.* What do you recollect about the Indians in these parts? 113.* How is Upper Peru divided? 114.* What about its metropolis? 115. Copy out the table from Section Twenty-nine. 116. Where is Chuquisaca situated? 117. Describe its appearance. 118. Whence has it received the name of La Plata? 119. Where is Potosi? 120. For what is it remarkable? 121. Mention what you know about it. 122. Give some description of its silver mines.

PARAGUAY.

123.* How is Paraguay bounded? 124.* What is its natural figure? 125.* State its area and population. 126.* In what way are the inhabitants governed? 127.* How does this person style himself? 128.* Name his capital. 129. Where is it situated? 130.* What was it originally? 131.* What about its population? 132. By whom, and when, was Paraguay first discovered? 133. Who subjugated the country? 134. In what way did the inhabitants behave towards the natives? 135. When did the Jesuits make their appearance in Paraguay? 136. What boon did they gain from the King of Spain with respect to Paraguay? 137. Was this state of affairs afterwards altered?

LA PLATA OR THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

138.* By what various names is this republic known? 139.* How is it bounded? 140.* State its area and population. 141.* To what nation did it formerly belong? 142.* By what appellations was it then known? 143.* What can you state concerning its religion and government? 144.* How is it at present divided? 145.* What do you know about its metropolis? 146.* What mountains can you mention in La Plata? 147.* Name its principal rivers? 148.* Also the tributaries of the Rio de la Plata. 149. Copy out the table from Section Thirty-five. 150. Where is the metropolis of Buenos-Ayres situated? 151. What renders it important? 152. Describe the appearance of the city. 153. What can you state about its inhabitants? 154. And about its harbour? 155. Where is the town of Monte Video, and whence has it derived its name? 156. Mention what you know about it. 157. Give some account of the town of Mendoza.

CHILI.

158.* How is Chili bounded? 159.* State its population and superficial extent. 160.* To what nation did it formerly belong? 161.* How was it then governed? 162.* When, and how, did it become independent? 163.* What is its religion? 164.* Describe its form of government. 165.* How is Chili at present divided? 166.* What do you know about the Araucanians? 167.* Describe the capital of Chili. 168. What is the natural appearance of Chili? 169. What can you mention generally about its rivers? 170. Name the principal ones. 171. What can you state about the mountains of Chili? 172. Copy out the table from Section Forty. 173. Give the situation of the capital of Chili. 174. Mention what you know about it. 175. Name its port. 176. Give some account of Valparaiso. 177. Where are the islands Juan Fernandez and Masafuera? 178. What has rendered the former interesting?

PATAGONIA.

179.* What part of South America is included under the appellation Patagonia? 180.* Give the limits of Patagonia. 181.* State its area and population. 182.* What can you mention about Cape Horn? 183.* Where is the Terra del Fuego? 184.* What is it? 185.* What island forms Cape Horn? 186.* For what is this promontory remarkable? 187. By what other name is Patagonia also known? 188. When, and by whom, was it discovered? 189. What about the Strait of Magellan? 190. What particulars can you state about the inhabitants of Patagonia? 191. What is their moral condition? 192. What State claims dominion over them?

PJ









